UTILIZATION OF RESOURCES IN THE TEACHING-LEARNING PROCESS

By

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

An examination of the history of American education reveals a rather consistent tendency for the public schools to grow apart from the community and to isolate themselves. Almost universally schools became sufficient unto themselves; they lost the feeling of identification with the community. Educators either forgot or failed to recognize that the community and the school are organically related, with the school being a functioning institution within the community. As a consequence, those instances when the schools reached out into the community or brought the community inside the school walls, making use of community resources, became the exception to the rule. Adherence to this policy of isolation restricted the systematic search for, and extensive use of, natural resources, social resources, and human resources, which might have contributed much to the educational program in various ways.

This apparent determination of schools to withdraw from the community made it appear almost as if they were oblivious of the changing American scene. They gave little evidence of being aware of the rapid growth of population, of the emerging predominance of industry, of the gradual shift in the basic structure of the nation from a rural-agrarian society to an industrial-urban society, and of the rise of new institutions and agencies to meet these changing conditions.

The tremendous growth of American population has been accompanied by a parallel growth in the number of agencies created by federal, state,

and local governments to serve the needs and wants of the American people. It is common knowledge that many of these agencies and the schools have thought of their services as being rather separate and distinct, with very little in common that might havebeen of use to each other. It is also true that the educators have generally held themselves aloof from industry in all forms, and neither seeking ways to serve industry, nor making industry aware of valuable contributions it might make to the enrichment of the educational program. The continued pursuance of the policy of isolation by educators tended to make the curriculum predominatly academic in nature. A functional curriculum, providing "education for use rather than for more possession, education for a reasonably direct and obvious contribution to the improvement of daily living here and now; education for all aspects of our individual's necessary and inescapable involvement in community life, his role as a person, as citizen, as home maker, as worker, and as general beneficiary of the cultural heritage,"[1] was not possible. As a consequence, the curriculum was seldom related to the dynamic society of which the school was a fundamental institution, and the varied and essential auxiliary and coordinate services to youth were not provided. As a result, many students could see no meaningful relation between education and the external world of work and reality. "The child should be made acquainted with a changing dynamic world and should be prepared to live in a continu ally changing world. . . . Education, therefore, is a process of living and not a preparation for future living."[2] This has meant that for the most

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[1] W. B. Featherstone, A Functional Curriculum for Youth, p. 7.

[2] John Dewey, The Child and the Curriculum, p. 17.

part the tendency has been for the schools to become concerned with limited formal aspects of the culture of their respective communities. They have quite generally by default excluded from the teaching-learning process the use of a rich variety of resources and those valuable techniques of instruction that are an integral part of resource utilization.

It is quite apparent that among leaders in education there is a consciousness, an awareness, that the teaching-learning process would be aided if a proper and intelligent use of resources was effected. As a consequence, educational thinking is shifting to a differing viewpoint, with the result that many educators now assume that wise use of community resources by public schools is a good policy and will result in better instruction and an enriched curriculum. Pioneering in the field by the Lincoln School, Teachers College, Columbia University, by the Philadelphia schools and by the Parker School District has served to demonstrate the great benefits to the teaching-learning process and curriculum resulting from utilization of resources. That this assumption is sound and has been widely accepted for some time is indicated by the decision of the National Council for the Social Studies in 1938 to devote its yearbook to the topic, "Utilization of Community Resources for the Social Studies." Later the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards, in developing the evaluative criteria for the visiting committees to use in evaluating the high school program, included a specific item on the use of community resources in social studies.[3]

William G. Carr, Associate Secretary of the National Education

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[3]Section D-16, Evaluative Criteria, p. 188.

Association, has indicated acceptance of this assumption, and has recognized this new trend in education.

> The modern school must learn to use the community as a great living laboratory and textbook of civic and personal life. Good books are essential tools of learning, but there are many lessons that cannot be learned from books. There must be more and better community study under the auspices of educational authorities.[4]

This endorsement of the basic assumption, and active support by national groups, is quite important. However, it is the teacher in the classroom who must translate theory into action before school youth are directly affected by this encouraging development. That some teachers are cognisant of the need for, and the value of, community resources in the instructional program, may be assumed from the official policy statements indicated below.

At the National Conference for the Improvement of Teaching, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio, July, 1947, it was stated:

> If teachers believe that the primary purpose of education is to improve the quality of living through more effective individual participation, it is vitally urgent that there be a stronger movement toward mobilizing educational forces to use the community as a great laboratory of learning. . . . More and more the tapping of community resources will be noticeable in American education, for community resources are inseparably linked to the learning experiences of young people.

The Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education stated:

> The circumstances of our times make it imperative that the

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[4] Edward G. Olsen, School and Community, Foreword by William G. Carr.

> school should offer children more than book learning in the classrooms. It must, indeed, make use of all the community's resources for providing children with direct and valuable contacts with environmental reality. Experimentation along this line has already begun in schools at every level, but it needs to be extended with great rapidity. Every community offers many opportunities to the schools for such experimentation. These should be vigorously uncovered and the school should take the initiative in persuading the community to make them available.[5]

Have the schools and their teachers responded to these challenges? Is there evidence that these recommendations are being translated into action?

There are indications of practical steps being taken to implement these policy statements. In scattered communities around the nation some schools are increasingly making provision for pupils to participate more actively in the teaching-learning process. Individual teachers have developed excellent programs in isolated instances. However, the proposed study is concerned primarily with school units or school systems in an organized approach to the problem of resource utilization. It does recognize that individual teachers have made rich contributions on the "broken front" approach, but considers it impractical to attempt to report the results of individual experimentation. Efforts are being made to secure more effective teaching aids; more audio-visual aids. Excursions, or field trips, are being utilized to provide actual experiences with concrete elements in the community, with on-going activities in the community. In addition, the field trip provides experiences in a setting demanding the kind of cooperation which all pupils must learn to exercise as members of a highly complex organized society. Resource persons are

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[5] Teachers for Our Times, p. 136.

brought into the school and classroom to contribute their special talents, their special knowledge, and to give the pupils the benefit of their rich background of experience. Students observe skilled workers, business people and professional workers on the job--spend a day with them.

The services of other educative agencies and institutions in the community are used to supplement and enrich the school program. Community resources are used as teaching materials. Industrial personnel may be used to teach technical subjects. Industry may contribute special supplies and equipment. Industry, labor, agriculture, the professions, and informed lay leaders may serve as consultants in helping to revise or build school curriculums. In a wide variety of ways, human resources, natural resources and social resources are being utilized to enrich the school program by providing better instruction and an enriched curriculum to help schools provide a more functional education for American youth.

The National Conference for the Improvement of Teaching, the Commission on Teacher Education, and many individuals representing educational leadership have accepted the basic assumption that the schools should offer children more than book learning. They have agreed that schools should make use of all the community's resources for providing children with direct contacts with environmental reality, and that the teaching-learning process should include those special and valuable techniques associated with resource utilization. While this is true, much remains to be done. Education needs to translate educational theory into actual practice in the classroom. Many of the principles accepted by the Parker School District, many of the projects and programs developed there twenty-five years

age, are still far in advance of the educational theory and practices in most schools today.

The propositions advanced by educational councils and conferences and by individual leaders, and the reported instances of their implementation create an exaggerated impression of progress. While the reported instances of resource utilization resulting in better teaching-learning situations and resulting in a richer, more functional curriculum, may convey the impression that the problem of resource utilization has been solved and is an on-going venture in American schools, this is hardly the case.

Unfortunately, resource utilization, as a scientific process, on a systematic basis, for the improvement of the learning situation and the enrichment and vitalizing of the curriculum, is still on the educational frontier.[6] Furthermore, American youth in urban communities are being denied those realistic experiences, those invaluable contacts with the on-going dynamics of their society that are vitally necessary to prepare them for mature roles as American citizens.[7] It is impossible for the

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[6]"Growing Up in an Anxious Age," Yearbook of National Education Association, p. 55. In an analysis of the current situation regarding actual practices in the classroom, the A.S.C.D. Yearbook reports that the trend in effecting change, in getting teachers to make more use of new methods, such as use of audio-visual materials, excursions into the community, surveys and committee reports, are all new techniques with which some teachers feel insecure. Due to the difficulty of stimulating a desire for resource utilization and a shift in emphasis and techniques necessary for this enriching process, the yearbook reports that the "broken front approach" is more effective than asking the entire group to change.

[7]Edgar Dale has stated that: "Isolation from direct experience is a real danger facing our schools. It is possible to become so isolated from parents, community agencies, media of communication and other unifying agencies that one loses touch with the organic life of the community." /Edgar Dale, Audio-Visual Methods in Teaching, p. 79./

A recent study on an extensive basis in Detroit /Exploring Your Community, Citizenship Education Study of the Detroit Public Schools/

schools by themselves to provide all the educational experiences, all the talents, the skills, the totality of expertness which functions in the community.[8]

The paucity of accomplishments in adequate utilization of resources may be illustrated by a consideration of guidance and counseling in the public high schools. A recent study of 404 high schools in Illinois revealed that only 13 per cent were teaching courses in occupations, that in less than one-half was any time of any staff member scheduled for counseling individual students, and in only 10 per cent of the schools was as much as fifteen hours per week of staff time available for counseling.[9] In a similar study made in New York, more than 80 per cent of the pupils in the schools studied either had no guidance or had guidance by inadequately prepared persons only. The availability of qualified counselors in other states is probably no greater.[10] Hence, although school administrators acknowledge the importance of counseling, relatively few of their students yet have competent counselors available. This condition may be ameliorated to a considerable extent by intelligent use of community

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indicated that a large number of teachers and schools are not making sufficient use of available resources for providing direct experiences. It also reveals that teachers cannot assume that their students have had large numbers of enriching, direct experiences in this urban center.

[8]Milosh Muntyan, Journal Educational Research, XVI (April, 1948), 587-598. Here Muntyan points out that if the school is to be effective it must move into the community to carry out its function, else it will continue to resort to artificial devices and incur the danger of achieving only artificial results. He points out that the schools must bring community life and activities into their program, and must utilize lay people as a source of expertness which neither the teacher or the school could symbolize.

[9]F. H. Finch,"Guidance Facilities and Practices in Illinois High Schools." Bureau of Educational Research, University of Illinois (mimeographed).

[10]W. S. Monroe, Encyclopedia of Educational Research, p. 937.

resources, if schools can be provided with definite principles, methods, and techniques for resource utilization.

It would be a simple matter to provide numerous instances of other areas of instruction that are not adequately provided for, or to give examples of severe lack of equipment and facilities which limit the effectiveness of the school program. This situation may be emphasized by a statement from the N. E. A. News which sounded an alarming note: "Our understaffed schools face an unprecedented period of shortage. Disaster is at hand. Everywhere, storm signals are flying."[11] Overcrowded schools are quite common in America today. An unfortunate result of the overcrowded classrooms is that the over-worked teacher has neither the time nor the energy to deal with an increasing number of children who need special help and special consideration. Unless resource persons and community resources, as represented by other educative agencies, are reached, and utilized as supplementary aids to instruction, and used to provide auxiliary services, vital needs of youth will not be met.

In view of the foregoing considerations it would seem quite valuable to education to make a study that would discover, analyze, and in a measure evaluate various principles, methods and techniques for the utilization of resources. Apparently no such comparable study having the purpose of making available to teachers and administrators a synthesis of those principles, methods, and techniques which might enable them to achieve a more effective utilisation of the educational opportunities present in their communities has been made.

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[11] N. E. A. News, October 5, 1951.

While considerable study has been devoted to the community school which has been concerned with resources, there has been little attempt to identify, isolate, classify and evaluate those principles, methods and techniques that serve as the basis for utilization of resources in the instructional program. Various projects and programs have been reported in such studies as Knox McCharen's Improving the Quality of Living, but no compilation or careful analysis of principles has been made.

Reports of projects involving community resources have indicated adaptations of various principles and techniques in specific situations but have not generalized regarding broad applications. Furthermore, they fall into two major categories, representing two differing philosophies. In the first category, which is best exemplified by the community school, the philosophical viewpoint is that utilization of resources will be employed by the school to raise the level of living. The work of the Sloan Foundation in improving the quality of living in the major areas of food, clothing and housing, using the local school as the nucleus, is an illustration. Evaluative evidence in the Experiment in Applied Economics indicated that the more functional materials of instruction helped not only in raising the level, but actually resulted in better instruction in the so-called fundamentals. In the second category, the philosophical tenet is that improved instruction and an improved teaching-learning situation will result from the utilization of resources in the school program.

Need for This Study

Evidence indicates that there has been no study that has been primarily concerned with the application of principles, methods and techniques

for resource utilization based on the philosophical tenet that an improvement in the teaching-learning situation results from the utilization of resources in the school program. This type of study would recognize that in some cases improved living would be a concomitant result and that this would be desirable. However, the major emphasis in such study should be on improved instruction, on an enriched, more functional curriculum, so that youth in school would see more meaningful relations between formal education and the world of work.

Inasmuch as very little has been written on this specific subject in which experimentation has been carried out in scattered areas, it seems that a comprehensive survey of the literature in the field would fill a need. There is a shortage of information on that aspect of the problem which emphasizes teaching procedures developed in local communities. W. W. Charters says that out of every thousand studies carried on, tested and found useful in local centers ten are reported and 990 are unknown except to the workers.[12] There apparently is need for a compilation and an analysis of the best thought on the subject, for no single study has attempted to discover which generalizations are basic and applicable to most situations. If the principles are sound and basic it appears that it should be possible to bring together the results of the best thought on ways to use resources to better advantage in teaching.

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[12]William W. Charters, "Era of the Educational Engineer," Educational Research Bulletin, December 12, 1951.

Statement of the Problem

The problem is to find out whether or not there are generalizations concerning resource utilization fundamental to the utilization of resource in the teaching-learning process. This phase of the problem is to discover, analyze and in a measure evaluate these various generalizations of resource utilization.

Another phase of the problem is to classify the generalizations into logical and specific categories, if possible.

Limitations and Definitions

Limitations

Derivation of generalizations pertinent to the study of principles, methods and techniques, will be made from any sources available insofar as they apply to the problem.

The analysis of specific system-wide projects involving resource utilization will be largely confined to the River Rouge Action Research Project, to representative Florida schools, to the Parker District, South Carolina, and to selected schools in North Carolina, Georgia and Tennessee.

Definition of Terms

Resource. A resource is any person, any agency, institution, organization or group, any element of nature, any material, object, or device, any technological contrivance, any industrial process or establishment, any field of human endeavor, any idea, principle, or method

or technique, which might be used to improve the school program.

Natural Resources. These are the materials and forces of the physical environment, or primary sources such as land, minerals, water, and plant and animal life. They provide the physical medium in which food is grown, metals and fuels are mined, building materials and clothing are procured, and from which machines and gadgets are fashioned.

Social Resources. For the purpose of this study, social resources include organizations of family, of education, of government and of religion. Social resources also include the less formal public and private organizations, such as Parent-Teacher Associations, Future Farmers, cooperatives and civic clubs. Organizations typify most of the social forces operating in the community.

Human Resources. The people, in school and out, who make up the community represent its human resources. They hold the key for the way the natural resources are used, and the methods for organizing the social resources rest in the human resources. They provide all the talents, the skills, the totality of expertness which functions in the community, and which the schools alone could not provide.

Generalization. This means a general statement, idea or principle concerning resource utilization in the teaching-learning process. For the purposes of this study the terms generalization, idea and principle shall be used interchangeably.

Principle. In this study, principle means a standard or

test, for measuring, regulating or guiding the use of resources in the teaching-learning process. It is a generalization which, at least, is tending toward the accepted rule of action.

Method. As used in this study, method is an orderly procedure or process, a system developed in accordance with the principles discovered, for utilization of resources.

Technique. Technique commences to operate after the principles have been discovered and the methods developed. It is the art of executing the plan; the details of procedure essential to expertness of execution or implementation for the utilization of resources by the public schools.

Leader. A leader is any individual in whom a group recognizes an unusual ability or quality in a particular area, and who is capable of rendering a special service to the instructional program.

Agency. An agency is an organized institution, business, or group, rendering a special and desirable service which may be utilized by the school for improving its program.

Resource-use School. For purposes of this study this includes any school which is sufficiently alert to project itself into the community, to bring the community to its pupils, thereby enriching the formal learning gained from textbooks, improving the teaching-learning situation, providing additional services and keeping itself somewhat responsive to the dynamics of its community.

Teaching-learning Process. For purposes of this study, teaching may be defined as helping some one to learn, to acquire knowledge, attitudes, ideals, habits, interests, skills or other types of learning he did not previously possess. Learning may be defined as the process by which one becomes able to do something he could not previously do, as the process of acquiring knowledge, attitudes, ideals, habits, interests, skills and the like.

Teaching is the stimulus, learning is the response. All available, valid, resources may be used in the process.

Procedures

The generalizations pertaining to resource utilization will be sought in the recorded experiences or theories of educational writers; in personal contacts with persons who will express ideas which in the judgment of the writer may be worth testing in this study; and in the written comments made by school personnel participating in this study. These generalizations will be tested by submitting them to the personnel of the schools selected for this study. A limiting factor in methodology will be the major emphasis to be given to the River Rouge Action Research Project and to the results to be obtained from cooperating school personnel at River Rouge. The results will be reported in the form of a list of generalizations widely accepted by the personnel of the participating schools. More specifically, the methods indicated below will be used in this study.

A. Review of related literature to show:

1. Historical development.
2. Present trends, emphasis and needs.
3. Truths or principles of educational practice justifying further research in the area selected for this study.

B. Extract from research and supplement with statements obtained from persons the generalizations, methods and techniques for discovering, coordinating and utilizing resources for school improvement. Construct an instrument composed of these statements.

C. Make a study of the River Rouge Action Research Project.

1. Determine which generalizations, methods, and techniques that operated and which did not operate in the schools in River Rouge, Michigan, using the instrument developed for this purpose.
2. Describe certain projects and programs which illustrate the application of generalizations, methods and techniques.

D. Select representative schools in Florida for this study.

1. Study results of the survey forms submitted to personnel of the generalizations, methods and techniques which were said to be operating and which were not.
2. Describe certain projects and programs which illustrate the application of some generalizations, methods and techniques.

E. Select additional Southern schools for assistance.

1. Study results of the survey form submitted to personnel of selected schools in North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee and Georgia.
2. Description of certain practices and programs illustrating some of the generalizations.

F. Analysis of findings in the selected schools studied.

Sources of Data

In most instances, educational writers appear not to have attempted to make specific statements on utilization of resources.

Apparently, schools are doing more in the utilization of resources in the teaching-learning process than is reported. Consequently, the nature of this study makes it necessary to use a combination of sources such as are indicated below.

1. Bibliography of research in the area of resource use by schools.
2. Logs of teachers participating in the River Rouge Action Research Project.
3. Individual conferences with selected teachers.
4. Annual Conference of Supervisors, University of Florida, January, 1952.
5. Analysis of reports on River Rouge Action Research Project.
6. Visits to selected Florida schools and examination of their programs.
7. Report by the staff on the evaluation of the River Rouge counseling program.
8. Report on evaluation of River Rouge schools by lay-leaders in three school-community days.
9. Examination of school projects utilizing resources of the community.
10. Reports of follow-up studies of students in River Rouge, Michigan.
11. Comparative analysis of River Rouge in 1946 and 1952, made in conferences with the River Rouge staff.
12. Results obtained from the use of the special instrument to determine actual operation of specific principles, methods and techniques.
13. Special material from the National Education Association Research Division.
14. Special material from the People Act Center, Ford Foundation project.
15. Special material from the United States Employment Service on cooperation between a federal agency and local public schools.

16. A series of conference with the Michigan State Employment Service.

17. Florida Resource-Use Education Committee, Gainesville, Florida, April, 1952.

18. Personal observation and experience.

Overview of the Dissertation

The second chapter, Historical Development, traces the influence of certain European movements upon resource utilization in America. It describes the influence of early leaders and groups in plotting the course in America; gives a brief account of the development of the educational excursion and its influence in the field; describes early ventures in the field, particularly the Parker School District, Greenville County, South Carolina; and, traces certain developments and their contributions, including the Southern Region Studies.

The third chapter, Trends, Emphases and Needs, presents a review of the major developments and thinking on resource utilization as reported in literature of the field. There is a discussion of philosophical implications. There is an analysis of accomplishments and the indicated trends of progress. There is also a description and discussion of the needs and task that remains to be done in the schools.

The fourth chapter describes the search for generalizations recorded mainly in educational writings and the development of the instrument containing a list of these statements for corroboration by teachers, supervisors, and administrators in the selected schools.

A description is made of the scope of each category in the classified list. Steps in the construction of the instrument and plans for selecting the schools and procedures for presenting the instrument to educational personnel are outlined.

The fifth chapter sets forth a brief description, the history and the background of the River Rouge Action Research Project. It contains an analysis of the River Rouge Action Project, describing certain programs and projects. The application of generalizations as applied to resource utilization is described. Specific developments and shifts in emphasis are included to show how resource utilization is an evolving process in River Rouge, Michigan.

The sixth chapter consists of studies of projects and cooperative activities carried out in the selected southern schools in the states of Florida, South Carolina, Tennessee, Georgia and North Carolina. The application of generalizations as applied to resource utilizations is described. Specific developments and shifts in emphasis are included to show how resource utilization is an evolving process in the southern schools.

The seventh chapter, The List of Generalizations on the Utilization of Resources, contains the list of statements on which there was agreement of or confirmation by, at least 80 percent of the teachers, supervisors, and administrators who returned the check list.

The eighth chapter, Conclusions and Recommendations, contains the author's criticisms of the study and his recommendations on the utilization of resources in the teaching-learning process.

CHAPTER II

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT

Again and again through the centuries educational statesmen have urged "real experience" rather than synthetic and artificial school activities. Certain European educators questioned the devotion to classical writings and the perpetuation of the Alexandrian concept that education consists in gaining formulated knowledge from books and lectures. They were determined to break away from the Alexandrian concept; for this reduces man to mind, and mind is reduced largely to memory. Rousseau, Pestalozzi and others insisted upon a different type of education—education for living. They attempted to inject real life experiences into education. They sought a better way of teaching. Their theories and experiments influenced early leaders in America who came to accept the idea that the Alexandrian concept was not adequate to fulfill the purpose of education in a dynamic American society. They believed that a study of the local environment and contacts with the on-going forces of the community, providing concrete symbols of human experience, must be provided. They believed that the teaching-learning process should not be dominated by the Alexandrian concept, but should push on to new frontiers. This implied a utilization of many concrete elements and symbols. It meant an extension of education beyond the four walls of the school. It resulted in the initiation of a movement which sought to bring a wide variety of resources into the educational program. It would be extremely difficult

to trace the evolution of this development step by step, but there appears to be evidence of highlights in the evolution of educational procedures which are suggestive of intensive resource utilization in the teaching-learning process.

European Influence

In ancient Athens, the community took over after the boy finished school. His further education depended upon incidental participation in the activities of the city's life. In the great culture of Athens the institutions were highly educative. The young man learned much in assemblies, where he listened to debates and discussions; on the juries where he saw laws interpreted and applied; at the theatre where he listened to the great tragedies and comedies; at the Olympic games where he came into contact with all that was best in Greek culture. All the enervating life of the great city was in itself an agency for education. The Athenian youth learned by living.[1]

In those instances where a society remains static, the Athenian pattern may be followed and the school may entrust the "life preparation" education of its youth to the established institutions of the community. Hullfish analyzed the situation in this manner:

> There was an educative unity about the community itself. Participation in its activities was easy--was a normal part of the business of growing up. The special

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[1] T. G. Tucker, Life in Ancient Athens, pp. 61-66. See also E. H. Wilds, The Foundations of Modern Education, p. 95.

> function of the school, which the community willingly delegated to it, was the intellectual development of the young of the community.[2]

Hart expressed it quite clearly:

> This doctrine was adequate, even inevitable, as long as the village and rural community provided all the other fundamentals--work, play, social life, emotional enrichment, the sense of community, and the framework of a personal career.[3]

As Caswell suggests, the school in a static society has generally transmitted segments of the culture and provided fundamental tool subjects and left the business of preparing for life and life-work to other institutions in the society.[4]

Pestalozzi in the nineteenth century became greatly concerned with the old approach to education. He was particularly concerned with how learning best takes place. He regarded observation as the basis of all knowledge. He would build up concepts and understandings by proceeding from the concrete to the abstract. One of his notable followers in America was Edward Sheldon. The Oswego educator returned from a visit to the Toronto Exposition about eighty-seven years ago, laden with charts, books, cards, grains, building blocks, glassware, other articles and a great idea. Sheldon's idea was that people learn best by the most direct contact possible with the things they are learning about. Out of this idea grew much of the improvement in American schools during the latter

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[2] The Community School, edited by Samuel Everett, pp. 24-25.

[3] J. K. Hart, A Social Interpretation of Education, p. 6.

[4] Hollis Caswell Associates, Curriculum Improvement in Public School Systems, p. 8.

part of the nineteenth century.[5] Thus Sheldon and the Oswego movement gave impetus to the principle of bringing the world into the classroom.

Samuel C. Parker, shortly after the turn of the twentieth century, re-emphasized the value of observation, "the simple observational study of common natural objects and processes for the sake of personal acquaintance with things which appeal to human interest."[6]

Once again Pestalozzi's influence was felt. His emphasis on sense perception led to the introduction of home geography as a new subject. Pupils now began their study of geography by observing their immediate surroundings.[7] Thus, by the turn of the twentieth century, educational pioneers had brought some tangible and concrete articles of the community into the classroom and had turned the attention of the pupils to a study of their immediate surroundings.

Early American Leaders

John Dewey, who began writing his powerful tracts in 1896, electrified the educational world by the dictum, "Education, therefore, is a process of living and not a preparation for future living." He reminded educators anew that textbook learning was inadequate. "The child should be stimulated and controlled in his work through the life of the community." And again, "Much of the time and attention now given to the

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[5]Edward G. Olsen, School and Community, p. vii.

[6]S. C. Parker, A Textbook in the History of Modern Elementary Education, p. 339.

[7]Newton Edwards and H. C. Richey, The School in the American Social Order, p. 725.

preparation and presentation of lessons might be more wisely and profitably expended in training the child's power of imagery and in seeing to it that he was continually forming definite, vivid and growing images of the various subjects with which he comes in contact within his experience."[8] Dewey stressed the value of learning through experience. He insisted upon acquainting the child with a changing, dynamic world and stressed the necessity of preparing the child to live in a continually changing world.

Other early leaders included Harold C. Rugg, George Counts, William H. Kilpatrick, William McAndrew, Francis Parker and Arthur Moehlman. Rugg was a vigorous advocate of a practical, realistic approach to education, based on all the facts available, and suited to the needs and interests of youth in public schools. Writing in the Twenty-Sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Rugg reviews the work of the national committees from 1890 to 1920, and criticizes them for the control they exerted over the public school curriculum. Rugg protested against the maintenance of the status quo, the standardization, uniformity, and rigidly organized methods of teaching by these national groups which were dominated by college professors, and not representative, in any sense, of the public schools. Counts and Kilpatrick would build a new and better social order by projecting the schools actively into the life of the community. Kilpatrick later wrote the introduction for The Community School, a publication of the Society

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[8]John Dewey, My Pedagogic Creed.

for Curriculum Study.

McAndrew, in 1916, became concerned about the critics of public education who were harshly criticizing public schools and their costs. McAndrew discovered that people were criticizing education because they knew little of the work of the public schools. He decided that they should be informed, should be taken into confidence. He felt that public school authorities had long neglected to secure their cooperation and develop the more cooperative nature of the educational process. He wrote a book, The Public and Its Schools, to inform the public in which he listed recommendations for their improvement and pointed out the need for more desirable community relationships.[9]

Arthur Moehlman, like McAndrew, was an early leader in urging an extensive degree of cooperation between public schools and other agencies and institutions. Francis Parker, who, like Sheldon, was strongly influenced by European leaders, especially Herbart, insisted, before 1890, that the child was the correlating center of education. He insisted that a "course of study" should be constructed in which the elements of subject matter would be correlated around one theme, namely that of effective citizenship and community life. He recognized the value of using the community as a laboratory: "Two hours in a great rolling mill means a genuine profitable study of history. Such a study prepares children for the history of the great industrial developments."[10]

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[9]William A. Yeager, Home-School-Community Relationships, p. 1.

[10]Harold Rugg, Twenty-Sixth Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education, p. 90.

The influence of individuals upon American education was stimulating, but committees and groups, representing an organized approach, had a more widespread effect. Of interest in this study is the work of the Committee of Ten and the influence of the Carnegie Unit which placed the American high school in the situation where it became a highly standardized institution, offering a strictly academic curriculum.[11] The colleges dominated the secondary curriculum with their stress upon preparation in terms of subjects studied, quite generally until about 1925. However, it should be pointed out that as early as 1911, the Committee of Nine on the Articulation of the High School and the College was concerned about serving the life-preparatory needs of youth in the secondary schools.[12]

An interesting example of the contribution of resources to national committees is pointed out by Rugg. He states that money was needed to carry out a modern program of curriculum-making, and that the national committees had only a minute portion of the funds needed to produce an adequate and comprehensive report, by conducting nationwide surveys, setting up experiments and measuring results. However, since 1920, great educational foundations have granted large sums of money for surveys, and for recommendations for reorganization.[13] This is an important historical development, for these financial resources donated to national

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[11] Edwards and Richey, op. cit., p. 740.

[12] William Monroe, Encyclopedia of Educational Research, p. 1175.

[13] Rugg, op. cit., p. 56.

committees, and to special projects in the schools, are an example of resource utilization that has contributed much to educational progress.

Impact of Dynamic Industrial Society

The impact of a dynamic industrial society, first called to the attention of American educators by Dewey in 1897, was manifesting itself by 1925. A new era had dawned in America in 1926 when the urban population became greater than the rural population. The official 1930 U. S. Census showed definitely that more than half (56.2 per cent) of the population lived in the cities. By 1925, educational leaders were becoming cognisant of the fact that the high school was for most youth a terminal institution. New goals of secondary education emerged: socio-civic competency, healthful living, constructive use of leisure time and occupational efficiency.[14] New subjects appeared, especially in the non-academic category, which increased from 3.6 per cent of all work taken in 1890 to 21.2 per cent in 1930. In the senior or four-year high school the general, commercial, industrial-arts, fine-arts and other non-college preparatory curriculums had shifted from a subordinate position to one of numerical dominance.[15]

The National Survey of Secondary Education pointed up new trends. It indicated that the curriculum had become dynamic; that it recognized more aspects of complete living and that there was increased emphasis on

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[14] Edwards and Richey, op. cit., p. 741.

[15] L. V. Koos, National Survey of Secondary Education, pp. 168-170.

training for participation in social and civic life.[16]

However, these reports, these studies, do not reflect the true situation. When the report of the Regents Inquiry in New York was completed, it pointed out serious criticisms of New York schools for failing to provide the kind of education needed by American youth. This situation in New York probably was typical of that in other states. Hence, although there was change in curriculum, with new subjects appearing, the traditional approach in the teaching-learning process still prevailed. Public education continually informed the public of great accomplishments in serving the youth of America. However, the great success of the schools was measured by the statistics of their expansion, not by their true service to pupils. Actually, schools have fallen behind the advancing society of which they are a vital part. They have fallen behind because they have made alterations in the shell, but not in the inner core; pupils still sit and listen, and absorb.

It was against this background, this dynamic change in the American scene, and an awareness on the part of some of the alert educational leaders that a new course must be plotted in education, that the educational excursion began to receive considerable attention in America.

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[16] Ibid.

The Educational Excursion

The educational excursion, or field trip,[17] which is generally the starting point in the use of community resources by the school, has had widespread use in England and Germany, as reported by Atyeo. It has been accepted as a method of instruction and has been approved and encouraged by the ministries of education in both England and Germany.[18]

One of the earliest recorded excursions was made in 1877 when a geology teacher in Westminster, England, planned a trip to Switzerland to see a real glacier. As other excursions were made, their value was recognized and in 1911 a group of teachers formed a national association known as the "School Journey Association." Later the English Secondary Travel Trust was organized. During the years 1933 to 1939, it arranged twelve cruises to visit foreign lands, in which 15,000 boys and adults participated.[19]

In 1894, just three years prior to Dewey's Pedagogic Creed, C. C. Van Liew wrote about the excursions in Germany and attempted to arouse interest in America. He pointed out that a few brief excursions were made to galleries and museums, but said that too often they were undertaken without due regard to the systematic relations they should bear to

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[17]It has a long and honorable history. Aristotle and Socrates used the educational excursion, Comenius recommended it, Rousseau considered it the chief technique in the education of Emile, and Pestalozzi promoted it in his school at Yverdon. See Harry Mckown and Alvin Roberts, Audio-Visual Aids to Instruction, p. 181.

[18]Henry C. Atyeo, The Excursion as a Teaching Technique, p. 33.

[19]Ibid., p. 29.

the school work as a whole, or to the carefully selected and well defined end which they should have in view.[20]

Philadelphia, according to Atyeo, was one of the first city school systems to give official recognition to the excursion as a method of instruction.[21] In 1921, some fifty excursions had been made in connection with extra curricular programs. A committee which surveyed these excursions was so impressed with the results that it recommended their incorporation into the regular class program, in order that they might be more effectively organized, and planned so as to contribute directly to the school subjects. Four specific recommendations were made and became one of the earliest guides to excursion planning.[22]

Atyeo, in reviewing the developing interest in the educational excursion in America mentions an address delivered by C. F. Hoban in 1927, before the National Academy of Visual Instruction in which Hoban stated that the school journey is one of the most important and valuable types of visual aids. He stressed the value of the field trip for bringing children into direct contact with objects of knowledge, for vitalizing and enriching instruction and for developing, from the beginning, correct concepts. Atyeo states that national recognition was given to the excursion technique in 1931, at a conference of the Association of Childhood

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[20] Ibid., p. 43.

[21] McKown and Roberts say that Francis Parker introduced it into his Chicago school before 1890. (See McKown and Roberts, op. cit., p. 181.) Rugg is in agreement. (See Rugg, op. cit., p. 90.)

[22] Atyeo, op. cit., p. 45.

Education. At this conference, the extensive use of the excursion in Germany was described to lead up to consideration of its possible usefulness in America. One of the major points stressed was its value in widening the child's experience and in orienting him to his city. The need of following up the excursion by a detailed discussion of the excursions provided was stressed. It was suggested that each curriculum revision committee make a study of its own city and list the excursions which might advantageously be made in its own vicinity.[23]

If Atyeo's study is accepted, it seems reasonably certain that the educational excursion has developed at a rather late date in educational history.[24] The Collings Experimental Schools in Missouri and the Lincoln School of Teachers College, Columbia University, along with Philadelphia, were pioneers in the field. So far as can be determined, they stopped with the educational excursion, leaving it to others to push along a little farther in the task of more complete utilization of resources.

Early Ventures in the Field of Resource Utilization

The Parker School District in South Carolina entered the field at an early date and must be considered as one of the pioneers. What is more significant is that the Parker Schools went far beyond the educational excursion in the use of community resources. Tippett reported that in

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[23] Ibid., p. 47.

[24] McKown and Roberts agree with Atyeo. Writing in 1940, they state that the movement of the educational excursion is not two decades old in American schools. See McKown and Roberts, op. cit., p. 181.

1926 the Parker Schools brought in well-trained supervisors and nationally known educators to help revise the curriculum.[25] Local journeys became a significant feature of the school program, an integral part of the curriculum. The educational excursions ranged from

> . . . a near-by bed of clay to a distant trip to Washington, to see, hear and become better informed about the Nation's government . . . to see home and community life; to industrial plants to see workers, materials, machinery, and processes of manufacture; to libraries, museums or printers' homes to see articles of special significance, to places of literary or historical interest; and to number of places where a study of nature is possible.[26]

Tippett lists the following purposes for the school journeys of Parker District: to gain information needed to answer questions, to verify conclusions reached in the classroom, to enrich classroom learning by direct experience, to create a closer understanding between teacher and pupils, to develop a spirit of cooperation, and to establish an appreciation of how people work and live together. "Such an excursion into the environment has value beyond that of any classroom experience."[27] This sounds like a declaration of purpose of a 1950-1952 school. Indeed, Tippett considers the entire program to be a magnificent development, in a public school system, of the results of the experiment in the Lincoln School.

It has been pointed out above that the Parker Schools brought in educational "experts" to help revise their curriculum and assist in in-

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[25] J. S. Tippett, Schools for a Growing Democracy, p. 24.

[26] Ibid., p. 67.

[27] Ibid., p. 66.

service education of teachers, which is an early example of using educational leaders as "resources" in the public schools. The Parker District projected itself into the area of resource-use by making extensive use of the educational excursion, including camping experiences at Hobbyland, by using consultants to help revise the curriculum and conduct in-service training, by setting up a materials bureau, by making use of the textile mills in conducting classes, by making use of community buildings, by utilizing highly specialized personnel from the textile industry as instructors, by securing the technical advice and cooperation of textile personnel in developing its curriculum, and by having industry donate supplies for high school shops.[28]

It may be stated with a reasonable degree of certainty that the Parker District schools are a landmark in the history of resource utilization. They represent the first school system to develop a comprehensive program for the use of resources, extending beyond the limitations of the educational excursion in revising and enriching the curriculum and the total school program.

A word should be said at this point concerning the materials bureau which was set up in 1929. Appropriate space was provided, and a classroom teacher was made responsible for assembling, classifying, and helping teachers use whatever materials could be found. A person trained in library science served as her assistant. By 1935, the materials bureau contained 4,317 unit books, 5,030 supplementary books, geographies,

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[28] Ibid., pp. 24, 59, 238, 239.

pamphlets, bulletins, pictures, charts, stereographs, slides, projectors, lanterns for slides, work tables, a library of professional books for teachers, and a museum of models and exhibits. In 1929 teachers came to the materials bureau and took away whatever materials they found available. By 1935 a truck made deliveries of the materials they had selected. Teachers, pupils, parents, lay people in the community and other persons reached by correspondence have contributed to the materials bureau.

The purpose of the bureau was to assemble and make available to the teachers an adequate supply of books within the range of children's interests and understandings, pictures related to topics or themes of interest, maps which pupils can understand, illustrative charts and graphs, exhibits of raw and manufactured products, and specific information on places to visit.[29]

Olsen describes early service centers in Seattle (1937) and Minneapolis (1923), confined almost entirely to information pertinent to excursions, and definitely not rendering the complete service provided in the Parker School District Materials Bureau.[30]

The in-service education of the Parker District teachers included summer workshops at Camp Reasonover, North Carolina. In the summer of 1931 at Columbia University twenty-six teachers made the trip in a school bus, lived in the same apartment house and had their meals prepared by the director of their own high school cafeteria. In addition, teachers

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[29] Ibid., pp. 59-65.

[30] E. G. Olsen, School and Community, pp. 348-349.

have gone, either as a grade group or as a school group, to other schools in the state and adjoining states to observe the work of schools recommended to them by the visiting experts. In order to meet the needs of other Parker District teachers who wished to know more about the modern school, the West Greenville Observation School was set aside. Five of the best teachers were placed there. Other teachers could visit it to see in practice the most approved methods of modern education. Various experiments have been tried out in this school.[31] This rather intensive teacher-education program, originating in 1926, is a fine example of the early use of a variety of resources to improve the school and curriculum by improving the teachers.

Among other schools that ventured early into the educational excursion and other resource utilization might be mentioned: Seattle, Washington, which placed emphasis on school-community relationships, and made extensive use of field trips and visitations, and began developing the use of resource persons; Oakland, California, which used the community as a laboratory, and stressed the idea that the teacher must know what the community resources are and what are the approaches to them; Springfield, Missouri, unique in that studies of the environment were initiated and developed by the pupils. The pupils gained a balanced conception of community living as a whole. Flint, Michigan, where a unique organization, the Flint Community Association was developed which cooperated with all the social, civic and cultural activities and attempted to coordinate

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[31] Tippett, op. cit., pp. 23-32.

them. Many of the types of things which the schools needed to have access to were analyzed and put into shape by the Bureau of Research and Planning. Flint made extensive use of field trips, interviews and resource people. Ellerbe, North Carolina, a consolidated rural school with extremely limited finances, provided an outstanding program by turning over many activities to pupils, engaging in money-making projects, and tapping a variety of resources. Holtville, Alabama, a good example of the community school described by Knox McCharen, utilized many resources and improved the quality of living in the community. The Ballard Memorial School, Kentucky, was one of the earliest to use field trips in the immediate area and to more distant places. The teachers helped pupils develop community resources through school studies and community enterprises. Arthurdale, West Virginia, developed the "Community's School" where educational specialists and the federal government helped a group of unemployed miners rebuild their village and develop new job skills, with successful coordination of local organizations. Allen White, Negro community school, Hardeman County, Tennessee, developed a successful "learn by experience" program and improved the quality of living in the community. Waynesboro, Virginia, developed a comprehensive health program, revised the vocational curriculum in close cooperation with local industry and elicited extensive parent consultation and cooperation.

Evolving Developments and Their Contributions

In the summer of 1938, the Parker District turned to the Southern Study of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools as a new source of assistance. Several staff members visited the Parker Schools for consultative services during the next four years, and a considerable number of Parker teachers attended the summer workshops of the association in Nashville.[32]

When the Parker District turned to the Southern study of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools in 1938, it reflected an interesting development. Up to this point, Parker District had been assisted by Tom Alexander, J. S. Tippett and others from Columbia University. President Roosevelt's dramatic report on the South in 1938 had been a key factor in stimulating a renaissance in the Southern region. Once aroused, the South began to mobilize its human, natural and social resources for improving the quality of living of its people. Government officials, educators, business men, farmers and others from many walks of life organized on a regional, state, and local basis to advance the South to its proper place in the nation. This great work in resource utilization in the South points up a definite trend today towards increasing school and community cooperation with educators, government officials, industrial leaders in growing numbers, striving for mutual cooperation.

The Southern states, through the Southern regional studies and

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[32] L. P. Hollis, The Parker District High School and the Parker District Community.

and councils,[33] provided a fresh impact and a new direction in this area. Howard Odum and Rupert Vance represent a pioneer level of synthesis and interpretation of what the South is and what should be done to correct social and economic deficiencies of the area. They and their associates created the basis for intelligent social action to build a better life in the South. Their work ignited the spark that embarked the South upon its great projects in resource-use education. David Lilienthal, in describing the Tennessee Valley Authority, provides new interpretations of the movement. He describes how a regional federal agency, through democratic procedures, cooperates with colleges, schools, individuals, local groups and another federal agency to coordinate available resources. Expert scientific and administrative knowledge for the solution of major problems and the advancement of individuals, communities and the region was utilized.

John Ivey summarizes the work of the Southern regional studies regarding resource-use education. He states that the development of resources is basic to improved living. Scientists, educators and administrators join efforts in advancing this educational orientation on all levels of action. The objective is not just learning more about resources; it is also the dissemination of information in such a way that it results

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[33]The following is a partial list of organizations active in the development of the Southern region: The Southern Rural Life Council, the Southern Tenant Farmers Union, the Southern Regional Council on Racial and Economic Development, the Southern Region Research Laboratory, the Southern Conference for Human Welfare, the Southern Economic Association, the Southern States Work Conference on Educational Problems, the Southern Education Foundation, the Southern Association of Science and Industry, the Southern Regional Training Program in Public Administration, and the Southern Sociological Society.

in action. The goal is to create an informed public service, based on a union of science and spirit to release the maximum of human creative energy.[34]

Knox McCharen, in his study of community schools of the South,[35] provides illustrations of the implementation of the principles described by Ivey and the Southern States Work Conference.

The regional group best known to educators, and the one which played a major role in the movement, is the Southern States Work Conference on School Administrative Problems. This group, sponsored by the state departments of education and the education associations of fourteen states in the Southern region, was organized in 1940 to give educational representatives from these states an opportunity to cooperate effectively in working out solutions to educational problems of common interest. Each of the annual work-conference reports has been planned as a practical handbook for the guidance of state and local leaders in the region. These bulletins have had widespread use, not only throughout the South, but in many other parts of the nation.

The Southern region schools have followed quite generally the concept of the community school, as described in the reports in The Community School, compiled by the Community School Committee of the Society for

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[34] John Ivey, "Bridging the Tragic Gap," The High School Journal, XXIX (May, 1946), 105-106.

[35] W. K. McCharen, Improving the Quality of Living.

Curriculum Study.[36] They have expanded the concept, as evidenced by official statements.

> It is evident that many of the resources of the Southern Region are either being wasted or are not being properly utilized. If these resources are to be more effectively used for the benefit of the people, the schools and colleges of the Southern Region must consciously face the problems involved and carefully plan to assist in their solution.[37]

Certain conclusions were stated which explain the underlying philosophy, such as, "A major responsibility for bringing about these improvements rests on the schools and educational institutions of the region. While the schools alone cannot be expected to solve the problem, it cannot be solved without their intelligent and aggressive cooperation.[38] The work of the schools and educational institutions must be readjusted in many fundamental respects so as to contribute directly and deliberately at all levels to the attainment of this major objective."[39] Again, "It is the purpose of this report to suggest principles and ideas which should be considered in planning needed readjustments in the educational program in all states in the Southern region during coming years to assist in providing for more effective utilization of resources."[40]

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[36]Samuel Everett, ed., The Community School.

[37]Edgar L. Morphet, ed., Building a Better Southern Region Through Education, p. iv.

[38]Morphet further said, "While the schools and colleges alone cannot solve the problem, they can make a major contribution toward its solution and can assist in stimulating other organizations and individuals to do the necessary social and economic planning to assure that the needed improvements will be made." (Ibid., p. v.)

[39]Ibid., p. 2.

[40]Ibid.

This movement is important historically for it represents the first attempt by a large group of educational leaders from an entire region to view the organization and administration of education in terms of its relations to the resources and the potential development of those resources. While the reports have been prepared especially for use in the Southern region, many of the procedures used and conclusions reached have interest and significance for all schools in America.

While the community school concept, as clearly expressed above, states that the schools should be used to improve the quality of living of the entire region, there is recognition of resource utilization in the school program for the improvement of the teaching-learning process.

> The schools have an important responsibility for using the facilities and materials produced by nonschool groups wherever these can make a contribution to education. Instead of looking upon the work of related agencies as foreign to the program of the school, educators should give positive direction to utilizing and channeling such efforts for educational ends. Schools should seek actively to cooperate with and to obtain the cooperation of the many other agencies of government and organizations with respect both to utilization of materials and to the building of a proper attitude and awareness which will enable the student to utilize the services provided.[41]

The Community School Concept and Explanation of Different Approach in this Study

The community school concept is presented more extensively at this point than when presented in the first chapter for the purpose of

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[41] Ibid., p. 31.

clarification, and for the purpose of showing why it will not be extensively discussed in this study. Knox McCharen, in his study of community schools in the South, sets forth a clear definition of the community school.

> A community school is one whose program is designed for useful and effective learning on the part of the children and one which helps to improve the quality of living in the community; one which serves the total population of the community and seeks to evolve its purposes out of the interests and needs of the people living in the community. A particular community school may not fulfill all requirements of this definition. It is almost certain, however, to demonstrate some of these characteristics.[42]

According to McCharen, the following are ways to recognize a community school. It will be a community center, for its school plant facilities are used for this purpose. The facilities and environment are used extensively by the people living in the community for making and repairing farm machinery, food processing, and preservation, recreation, provision of reading materials, and for the solution of individual and group problems. There will be democratic participation of the teaching staff, the children, and other members of the community in the general administration of the total program. Public services beneficial to the community are initiated and are often operated by the school. All age groups are enlisted in cooperative projects of common interest and mutual concern, such as constructing recreational facilities, gardening, building and repairing school property, and community beautification.[43] This

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[42] McCharen, op. cit., p. 7.

[43] Ibid., pp. 7-8.

means that resource utilization under the community school concept may be quite different from the basic concept of this study, which holds that resources are used primarily for the improvement of the teaching-learning process.

Two aspects should be pointed out. First, there is confusion regarding the "community school," and second, according to the analysis McCharen presents, there are some important factors common to the community school approach and to the approach in this study of the "resource-use" school.

The confusion surrounding the community school is found in the nature of the school. When the Society for Curriculum Study compiled reports on what it called community schools, it included schools in great urban centers, as well as rural schools. Yet McCharen's definition of the community school is clearly that of a rural school. The Society for Curriculum Study would improve individual communities through the community school, while the Southern Region Study would improve an entire region through the schools. The majority of those reporting for the Society for Curriculum Study urged cooperation of the school with all elements of the community for an improved society, yet, in one school, the class struggle was emphasized, urging complete support for organized labor. In another school reporting, all efforts were directed to the maintenance of the status quo in the community.[44] In Elsie Clapp's report of the community

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[44]Everett, op. cit., pp. 452-455.

school in Arthurdale, West Virginia, she describes a situation where the federal government was directly interested and contributed financial support and technical advice.[45]

As there apparently is some confusion regarding the community school, and as it has different meanings for different persons and groups, this study will not pursue the subject further, attempting to avoid certain controversial matters as it seeks to discover ways and means of proceeding. The community school has been studied and reported to a reasonable extent, and no purpose can be served in this study by adding to the literature. The community school is important to this study for what it may reveal concerning basic principles of resource utilization and developments that have contributed to resource utilization in the teaching-learning process. As no reported study of the community school has analyzed the basic principles, has made a compilation or has attempted to determine the degree to which they operate in resource utilization, it has been necessary to consider the community school in the present study for this purpose.

As this study is concerned with all schools that utilize resources for the improvement of the teaching-learning process, regardless of their basic philosophy, regardless of their type, regardless of the kind of community in which they function, it must maintain a broad and all-inclusive point of view towards all schools using resources. It considers the community school for what it may contribute to its central

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[45]Elsie Clapp, The Use of Resources in Education, Part II, pp. 10-15.

purpose, but cannot confine itself to them. It recognizes that there are excellent practices in many types of schools and seeks to collect date from a variety of sources to reveal the most accepted practices in resource utilization for improvement of the teaching-learning process.

Thus it may be seen that the concept of using available resources to enrich the curricular program and expand the extended services of the school has a long history. Likewise, the concept of intelligent use of resources is not confined to the schools as illustrated by the work of the Southern region studies. This limited survey of the movement is intended to provide a background for the study. It seemed that by tracing the historical development a better appreciation of the problem would result, for it has been shown that some educators and some schools have long known what should be done, and how to do it. Yet, despite this special knowledge, most American schools and teachers are either unaware of the value it has for the teaching-learning process, or are unable or unwilling to use it in the classroom.

CHAPTER III

TRENDS, EMPHASES, AND NEEDS IN RESOURCE UTILIZATION

As has been pointed out in the second chapter, the Alexandrian concept, centering education on formal learning, has dominated education for centuries. The idea of introducing "real experience" into education is relatively new. The extension of this idea, the determination to provide concrete symbols, and the desire to proceed from the concrete to the abstract, has moved education along to the point where it is concerned with the utilization of resources in the teaching-learning process. This matter of utilization of resources is an integral part of community centered education which is becoming part of the educational pattern in America. It might be stated that the community centered school is a combination of the child centered and the socially centered approaches, for the child centered approach meets individual needs, while the satisfaction of social needs requires a close relationship between school and community. This means that resources in things, in organizations, and in people must be included in the educational program and permitted to make their significant contributions.

In analyzing community centered education, certain fundamental concepts, or trends, need to be considered to provide a background of understanding. Certain key elements need to be considered. As the basic problem of this study is to isolate certain principles and procedures, this implies a survey of the literature in the field from varied sources.

It implies an examination of the currents and cross currents in school communities by school groups and by non-professional groups to implement the basic philosophy of community centered education. It looks at these activities, especially as they apply to resource utilisation in the teaching-learning process. It should be borne in mind that among the currents and cross currents are found situations making for progress and situations impeding progress. For the utilisation of resources in the teaching-learning process has evolved through trial and error, success and failure, rather than through orderly, step by step, constant progress. The survey of literature in the field, and the examination of the currents and cross currents has drawn upon books, educational, sociological, and popular journals, reports from government agencies, educational yearbooks, state departments of public instruction, reports from individual schools and from cooperative school studies, reports from national conferences and commissions and reports from foundations. These recent developments have been explored to present evidence of important accomplishments which undoubtedly would illustrate the use of common principles and procedures of resource utilisation, whatever the underlying philosophies may be.

Some Basic Trends in Community Centered Education

As has been intimated in the foregoing, the utilization of resources, which means involvement of the community, is an integral part of school and community relations. In this connection it is important to note that interest in the field has assumed a new importance due to

two related trends. One trend is the general disappearance of the old primary community, the effective educator of children in many ways, for the community itself was a perceptual entity, where one could see, hear, and touch its ways of living. Primary or group cooperation arose spontaneously from a sense of common concern and shared experience, and younger generations were caught and held in the integrated cultural pattern. The other related trend, a conscious effort to replace the void created by the disappearance of the primary community, is the spread of community centered education.[1]

This recent shifting of emphasis from book centered education to community centered education implies that any program designed for the adequate education of American youth today must meet two fundamental criteria—socially realistic content, and a psychologically valid method. Evidence indicates that a resource-use school will satisfy both of these criteria if it makes adequate use of resources in the teaching-learning process.

It may be stated that there are six basic trends in community centered education, as revealed in the literature:

1. Participation in "life activities," forming a more lifelike basis for curriculum reorganization and serving to adapt school work more closely to pupil needs and area resources.[2]
2. Democratization of life; a shared participation program

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[1]William Monroe, Encyclopedia of Educational Research, p. 1065.

[2]Education for All American Children, pp. 267-271.

involving pupils, teachers, school administrators, parents and community groups.[3] Pritchett describes cooperation between a regional government agency, the Tennessee Valley Authority, and the schools. He points out actual accomplishments in "integration of resources, interrelated physical and social engineering involving land and water and people" and concludes that planning for community improvement can grow out of popular consensus.[4]

3. The school functions somewhat in the capacity of a community service center.[5] Here the emphasis would be on the community school and its fundamental concept of improving the quality of living. However, a modified version might very well exist in a resource-use school.

4. The coordinating community council composed of delegates from civic, fraternal, service and social organizations and all public and private agencies concerned with the well being of youth. It is organized to work on problems of joint school and community responsibility, and is dedicated to the coordination, planning and development of youth programs.[6]

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[3]"Group Planning in Education," 18th Yearbook, National Education Association Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1945, pp. 110-115; 137-153.

[4]Charles Pritchett, The Tennessee Valley Authority, p. 22.

[5]Knox McCharen, Improving the Quality of Learning, p. 7.

[6]C. E. Prall, "Community Organization and Cooperation," 17th Yearbook, National Education Association Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1944, pp. 141-168.

5. Utilization of community resources, such as the Sloan Experiments in Applied Economics conducted in Florida on housing, in Kentucky on food, and in Vermont on clothing, demonstrated the extent to which a school can directly improve the material standard of living in the community through curriculum reorganization, what it teaches to children in the classroom and demonstrates to adults in the community.[7] At its best this meets the two philosophical concepts in relation to resources which are: improving the quality of living, and improving the teaching-learning process. In New York City certain schools have made extensive use of community resources, especially resource persons and organizations to improve the teaching-learning process.[8]

6. Educating teachers for community leadership and for a more intelligent, more scientific utilization of resources to improve the teaching-learning process is another trend. Part of this teacher education includes development of teaching techniques and methods of evaluation. According to a national survey, about one-third of the fully accredited teacher education institutions were offering their students

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[7]Clara M. Olson and Norman D. Fletcher, Learn and Live, pp. 14, 65, 89-100.

[8]Community Organizations, The Superintendents Report, Part II, p. 19.

> some type of introduction to the philosophy, programs, procedures and problems of community centered education.[9]

The Sloan Project in Applied Economics involved the Universities of Florida, of Kentucky, and of Vermont, and underlined the importance of including training for community understanding, community planning, and community leadership in teacher preparation. It initiated programs of teacher education in this special area in several teacher training colleges, in cooperation with the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education.

These six basic trends, with the possible exception of the trend indicating that schools are becoming community centers, may serve as functional guide lines for any school desiring to utilize resources in the teaching-learning process. They should not be considered as applying exclusively for the use of "community schools," but rather to any school that will use the community and its resources.

These trends may be observed in operation in resource-use schools. As was indicated in the first chapter, the principles and methods of resource utilization fall into two distinct philosophical categories. The one holds that resources be used for improving the quality of living in both the school and the community, while the other philosophical base holds that resources should be utilized to improve the teaching-learning process in the school. Nevertheless, within the framework of community

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[9] Edward G. Olsen, "National Survey of Teacher Education in Community Study Techniques," Educational Record, XXIV (October, 1943), 421-435.

centered education both philosophies may operate. Many principles and procedures may be observed that are common to both schools of thought.

Implications of Life Activity Education and Resource Utilization

Certain implications are apparent from a reconsideration of trends toward life activity and resource utilization. Muntyan says:

> If the school is to be most effective it must be ready to move into the community proper to carry out its function. Else it must resort to artificial devices and incur the danger of achieving only artificial results.[10]

This applies directly to life activity education, which is possible only when the school projects itself into the community and involves the community in its program. Again, Muntyan expresses himself strongly in regard to the trend towards utilization of community resources when he says:

> If the school is to make use of such expertness as operates in the community itself, this involves recognition that the school staff is not adequately representative of the totality of expertness which functions in the community. Therefore, it has no alternative in many cases but to leave its ivory towers and make the community itself the school . . . the school would have to bring community life and activities into its program . . . and would have to utilize lay people as a source of expertness which the teacher or school could not symbolize.[11]

Muntyan points out, quite forcefully, that the schoolsneed to improve the teaching-learning situation. They may do this best by utilizing such resources of the community that symbolize the essential activities of a dynamic society, and by supplementing the teaching-learning process

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[10]Milosh Muntyan, "Community School Concepts," Journal Educational Research, XVI (April, 1948), 595-598.

[11]Ibid.

by expertness not found in the school. This was also the conclusion of Chambers as a result of his study of youth serving organizations in America.[12]

Traditional Authoritarianism Blocks Resource Utilization

A trend in education of long standing, one that needs to be changed, is noted by Lawson. In his study of curriculum development over a one hundred year period, 1840 to 1940, he points out a traditional policy. "The chief factors bringing about educational changes have been professional; the greatest changes have come from the school itself and the superintendent has wielded the most significant influence in the curriculum."[13]

This statement of the dominance of the superintendent seems to be based on accurate observation. It reflects the ivory tower attitude wherein the school isolates itself from the community. It prevents the human, natural, and social resources from being utilized and from making their contribution to the teaching-learning process. For it tends to maintain adherence to the Alexandrian concept. Lawson's statement of this long standing trend illustrates the reason for Muntyan's criticism of education. It shows that schools have been aloof; and largely for this reason they have not utilized the expertness within the community. This, in part, explains the failure to provide a functional curriculum.

This situation is still much in evidence today. If schools are

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[12]Merritt W. Chambers, Youth Serving Organizations, Introduction.

[13]D. E. Lawson, Curriculum Development in City School Systems, pp. 314-317.

to become dynamic and are to be responsive to the fluid culture, they must reverse this trend. When the situation exists where the only changes in schools come from within, and when the superintendents wield the strongest influence in effecting these changes, action in curriculum development is limited. This ignores the fact that the school and the community are organically related, the school being a functioning institution within the community.

Curriculum Change as Related to Social Change

Curriculum reconstruction, cooperative education, social change and time lag, which are all related, are expressive of additional trends. Changes in the curriculum, teaching methodology, and social change are directly related. This is part of the reason for the time lag. It is now recognized that both teachers and the community must be informed. Teachers need to understand the reason for and agree to the change in procedure and emphasis. The community must come to accept its new roles as an advisory group for curriculum reconstruction, and as a contributor of resources to education. The school must help the community understand how it may best function in these roles.

While educational theorists, together with leaders in the schools, may devise better methods, better techniques, may develop new principles in resource utilization, this is but a beginning. Moreover as there is a breakdown in communication, with the best theory and the most successful practices neither compiled, organized, or distributed to the schools, implementation becomes more difficult to achieve. This lack of

communication is especially true of developments in resource utilization in the teaching-learning process.

This then, poses a two-fold problem: analysis, organization and dissemination of educational inventions; and, change in teachers and laypersons before widespread implementation can take place. Consequently, the time lag occurs and there is a considerable interval between educational invention and the implementation of new developments.

The existence of the time lag in the utilization of resources is illustrated by Langfitt and Whitelaw. Writing in 1936, Langfitt, in analyzing the problems of the small high school, said, "On account of the usual lack of supplies, textbooks and equipment it becomes increasingly important for the teachers to improvise equipment and to make every possible use of the resources of the community."[14] While some progress has been made, it is interesting to note that Whitelaw in 1951 is stressing the importance of the use of resources just as Langfitt was in 1936.

For Whitelaw, in listing six objectives for a good school program, includes one on utilizing community resources to enrich the curriculum. He raises two questions on this point, namely, "Are the resources in people and the resources in things in the community drawn upon to enrich the learning that goes on in the school program? Do members of the community participate in developing the curriculum?"[15]

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[14] Richard Langfitt, The Small High School at Work, p. 579.

[15] John B. Whitelaw, The School and Its Community, p. 5.

Caswell points out the time lag in the application of known procedures. While Caswell says the idea of resource utilization is being put into practice, he does not say how extensive this is. The 1952 Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development yearbook indicates a need for progress in this field, as further evidence of the time lag. Caswell says:

> Another point of considerable emphasis during the 30's was in wider use of community resources in developing the curriculum. This idea is now being put into operation to an increasing extent. Children more frequently take excursions into the community and they often study community services and problems.[16]

It is appropriate at this point to consider trends in social change, and factors affecting change in attitude which precede social change. This is general and applies to teachers as well as lay persons.

This leads naturally to consideration of other writers in the field who agree that changes in the teaching-learning process must be effected, and believe that change in curriculum means social change. Spears, Ahrens, Faunce, Bossing, Miel and Caswell are among those taking this point of view. This means that if schools are to meet the need for curriculum reconstruction, changes in attitude must be effected. The need for change in the direction of education to community centered education is pointed out graphically by Dale:

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[16] Hollis L. Caswell, "Postwar Trends in Curriculum Development," National Education Association Journal, XLI (February, 1952), 93.

> Isolation from direct experience is a real challenge facing our schools. It is possible to become so isolated from parents, community agencies, media of communication and other unifying agencies that one loses touch with the organic life of the community.[17]

Certain apparently valid assumptions are proposed by which teachers may come to accept change.

1. Teachers must feel the need for the change. They must see the problem with their own eyes.
2. Leadership must be allowed to develop from their own ranks. Value is placed on each teacher's participation in terms of his own interest and at his own rate.
3. Teachers have a contribution to make to the formulation of programs; they have special insights derived from classroom experience and special understandings of how their children react. They are essential in establishing rapport with parents and other lay persons and groups.
4. It is the teacher who effects change and not the program in and of itself. A new program involves new values; training for competence involves experiences for the teacher which will clarify his beliefs and values, and, if necessary, change them.
5. Teachers must have purpose in their work. They want to feel that administration is democratic. They want to be part of a developing professional movement.

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[17] Edgar Dale, Audio-Visual Methods in Teaching, p. 79.

These assumptions are based on the Three Year Philadelphia Study by Trager and Radke.[18] They are a starting point for effecting change in the teaching-learning process for resource utilization.

Benne and Muhtyan recognize that change in curriculum, which is a vital part of the teaching-learning process, involves social control. They list six methods for effecting change. It should be understood that these methods apply to changes in teachers equally as well as to changes in the community. All six methods with the exception of exploitation, probably will be found necessary and desirable in certain specific social situations. The six methods are: physical compulsion, compromise, exploitation (which includes manipulation), excommunication, leadership, and democratic cooperation.[19]

The excellent research in human relations at the Research Center for Group Dynamics, University of Michigan, is a parallel trend in the related fields of sociology and psychology. Recently Cartwright reported on "Ways to Effect Change in Attitude."[20]

This represents a definite attempt to approach the problem of social change with objectivity and scientific techniques. It is a continuation of the pioneer work of Kurt Lewin. There is a real need for

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[18]Marion Trager and Helen Radke, "The Three Year Philadelphia Study," (mimeographed).

[19]Kenneth Benne and Bozidar Muntyan, Human Relations in Curriculum Change, pp. 296-307.

[20]Dorwin Cartwright, "Achieving Change in People," Human Relations, IV (1951), 314-317.

the schools to become familiar with this research and apply these techniques in changing attitudes as they go forward in curriculum reconstruction.

The importance of such developments reported by Trager and Radke, Benne and Muntyan, and Cartwright may be realized by reflecting that attitudes both in the school and in the community need to be changed to enable the school to employ the basic principles of resource utilization for the improvement of the teaching-learning process. For schools, being an organic part of their community and society, can hardly make effective, penetrating changes without the consent and support of their community. In helping their teachers and communities to accept needed, constructive change, in order to bring resources into the program to improve the teaching-learning process, schools need to be familiar with scientific advances in related fields.

This discussion of attitudes and social change points up another important trend which is that many lay people are changing their attitudes about schools, and feel that the schools do need additional help. They feel that they have something to contribute to the schools, as indicated by the reports of the National Citizens Commission. When the lay people, anxious to help, turn to the schools for leadership it means, claims Whitelaw, that educators must have knowledge of successful procedures for making valid use of these human and social resources.[21]

Seay, writing in the yearbook of the National Society for the

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[21] Whitelaw, op. cit., p. 5.

Study of Education in 1945, Curriculum Reconstruction, noted evidence of considerable reorganization of curriculum by schools that were utilizing community resources. He pointed out an interesting fact:

> This is not necessarily an all-inclusive trend. A school need not relinquish even a formal subject matter organization when it undertakes a program built upon neighborhood resources. It need only shift emphasis.[22]

This observation is important to this study, which is based on the assumption that any school can reach out and tap resources, regardless of the basic philosophy or the type of organization. A school does not have to be a "community-centered" school, nor an advocate of the core curriculum in order to discover and utilize community resources. However, it probably will have accepted the hypothesis that utilization of resources will improve the teaching-learning process. Very likely, any school that begins to develop the use of resources will re-examine the principles of its organization and the principles upon which it operates. It may question the value of accepted teaching techniques and critically examine its program.

Seay reported a trend indicated by an expressed demand by the public and within the profession for functional education. He stated that functional education, education to be effective, must utilize community educational resources. "The school that attempts to meet this demand, that endeavors to provide functional education, will draw upon the community both as a source of teaching material and as a resource for

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[22] Maurice Seay, Curriculum Reconstruction. Forty-fourth Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education, p. 214.

developing desired educational outcomes."[23]

Featherstone's concept of functional education is:

> Education for use rather than for mere possession, education for a reasonably direct and obvious contribution to the improvement of daily living here and now; education for all aspects of an individual's necessary and inescapable involvement in community life—his role as person, as citizen, as homemaker, as worker, and as general beneficiary of the cultural heritage.[24]

In order to achieve functional education, Featherstone calls for a high level of coordination of schools and community agencies. Featherstone's view of the school's responsibility for coordination in the community is that "It must seek to relate and harmonize the services and activities so that the total influence on youth is consistent within its parts, is balanced, is neither excessive nor deficient, in any important aspect."[25]

Yauch stresses the importance of knowledge of the community in curriculum reconstruction. He says that a consideration of the community in curriculum reconstruction includes knowledge and use of community resources, analysis of opportunities for youth, improvement in school-community relations and participation by laymen in school planning.[26] Ahrens, writing in 1951 in the yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Action for Curriculum Improvement, recommends that the community should be given an opportunity to consider the old

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[23] Ibid., p. 215.

[24] William B. Featherstone, A Functional Curriculum for Youth, p. 5.

[25] Ibid.

[26] Wilbur Yauch, Improving Human Relations in School Administration, p. 79.

curriculum, analytically and critically, to see its weaknesses, to see the need for curriculum improvement.

Cooperative education, fostered by vocational educators since 1900 and recommended by the report of the President's Commission on Higher Education for the community college, is a development providing realistic experiences and making excellent use of resources. It shows the student meaningful relations between school and the world of work and is an example of curriculum reconstruction. McCarthy says that the first state vocational department was established in New York in 1911.[27] This soon resulted in plans for cooperative education, which was established in New York City in 1915, with 336 pupils in three academic high schools. In 1950, 2,302 pupils participated in cooperative education in twelve academic and three vocational high schools in New York. This program, now an accepted feature of the New York educational system, is a direct example of utilization of available resources in that "jobs, in-service training, and income, are provided by local industry in cooperation with the school."[28] Work experience which is the heart of cooperative education is described by Grace:

> Work experience programs are one way in which the total education of future workers may be approached and by which all boys and girls might participate in the community on a near-adult level, find out about the world of work in a realistic manner and face the transitory period between school and job under the guidance of the school.[29]

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[27] J. A. McCarthy, Vocational Education, p. 7.

[28] Superintendent's Report, New York City, p. 41.

[29] A. D. Grace, American Secondary Education, p. 57.

Trends in Coordination and Cooperation Between Schools and Other Agencies

There are many examples of efforts to coordinate individuals, groups, and organizations to facilitate the discovery, analysis and utilization of resources to provide better services to youth and improve the teaching-learning situation. In order to achieve a measure of success in cooperation and coordination of effort, certain principles, techniques, and ways of proceeding are necessary. This means that the modus operandi, the organization, and the operation of the school affect the resource utilization program because integration is a vital element. The school needs to be so organized and operated and needs to follow those principles, methods, and ways of proceeding that the entire process will facilitate, encourage, and make possible a high degree of cooperation and coordination with other educative youth serving agencies and institutions. Stated briefly, it means that the organizational framework of the school must permit the school to make maximum use of community resources.

An early effort was made by the Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education in 1934 to establish conference groups of educators and laymen to discuss profitably current school problems. Phi Delta Kappa prepared a manual to be used by superintendents, principals, and teachers' associations to lead conferences involving education and the public in discussions of specific problems. This was an attempt to bring together interested and alert persons and to use their ideas and information to help meet the emergency for youth growing out of the depression. It is an example of an early organized effort to use available resources, primarily for purposes of study and advice, at the local level. It did not

meet the needs of youth or effect the changes in curriculum to retain youth in school and provide a functional curriculum, as will be shown later.

A more recent and more specific trend of coordination is the work in New York described in the pamphlet, Fifty Teachers to a Classroom.[30] This represents a definite, organized attempt to make direct use of human resources in the classroom. It describes experiences in contacting and bringing into the classroom human resources. It presents methods and techniques, telling how to organize coordinating committees of teachers and laymen and lists specific steps to take when they assemble. It was compiled by the Committee of Human Resources in New York.

John Tenny, President of the International Organization of Exceptional Children, while recognizing the trend toward coordination of effort, points out that much remains to be done.

> Too often one agency takes a case and refuses to let any other agency or organization help them. This means no coordination, no integration, no pooling of resources. . . . The schools too need to recognize this point.[31]

Featherstone makes practically the same observation, but with more emphasis.

> Practically all agencies that attempt to discharge an educational responsibility tend inevitably to take in more and more territory, to become more and more self-sufficient and to collide with other agencies. Generally, the more agencies, the more opportunity for overlapping,

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[30] Fifty Teachers to a Classroom, Metropolitan Study Council, 1950.

[31] John Tenny, speech delivered at the Seventh Annual Dinner, Wayne County Crippled Children's Society, March 9, 1952.

duplication, waste, conflict, opposition of purposes and methods, and general confusion in the total community.[32]

Olsen, who has conducted important studies in this area, anticipated the criticism of Tenny and Featherstone. Olsen, in stressing the importance of coordination, says, "In all programs which involve use of community resources for educational purposes, the fundamental key to success is community coordination, for no single agency can provide all personnel, knowledge, resources. . . ."[33]

It will be noted that Tenny and Featherstone are quite critical regarding the lack of adequate coordination. Other writers point out this same weakness. There is evidence of a great need for information concerning successful practices and procedures in coordination of effort for utilization of resources in the teaching-learning process. While it is true that much work remains to be done, there are some schools and areas in which it has moved forward with encouraging results. The work in coordination of effort for an entire region in the Southern Region Studies was discussed in the preceding chapter. The Minnesota Youth Conservation Commission has helped develop coordinated school-community programs involving many educative and social agencies.

Mesirow describes developments in school-community liaison in Minnesota. While this is an extension of the trend reported in New York, and demonstrated in the Southern Region Studies, Mesirow insists that

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[32]Featherstone, op. cit., p. 53.

[33]Edward G. Olsen, School and Community, p. 84.

"one of the great problems in education is the schools' lack of interest or inability to stimulate and mobilize community action for assistance in meeting current problems."[34] The Youth Conservation Commission has published a manual for community planning, prepared to assist local communities to understand better the needs of children so as to aid in the extension, improvement, and coordination of all services to youth. That a great task remains to be done, for which the community is responsible, is indicated in the introductory remarks.

> The local community, therefore, has the greatest opportunity to aid in the proper growth and development of its children . . . and must assume the responsibility. . . . In spite of this unique opportunity, the frequent dislocation and disruption of families and the failure of our basic institutions to meet the needs of children is largely responsible for the problems of later childhood.[35]

Mezirow agrees with Whitelaw, Ivey, Seay and others that school initiative and leadership are key factors in constructive school-community relations in planning and supporting the programs of the school. All agree that in many instances the volunteers in local communities who would contribute their services and resources turn to the educators in their midst for direction and leadership. Trump indirectly points out the great need for coordinated effort by showing that schools are unable by themselves alone to accomplish all the objectives they have included in the curriculum. Trump states that:

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[34] J. D. Mezirow, "School-Community Liaison," School and Society, LXXV (February 2, 1952), 65-68.

[35] "The Community Organizes for Youth," A Manual for Community Planning, Youth Conservation Commission, St. Paul, Minnesota, 1949, Foreword.

> Among obligations educators have willingly assumed, but are at a loss to discharge: all training for citizenship, college preparation, family living, vocational competence, moral conduct, and health. . . . Breakdown in home and family life and other problems of society are completely beyond the control of the schools. What is needed is frank admission by educators that schools cannot assume all responsibilities for all young people.[36]

This strongly worded expression from Trump highlights the pressing need for schools to utilize available reserves to help provide the services for youth, which many educators agree must be provided. Perhaps this situation is best stated with reference to lifelike situations. Mezirow has said that a great problem of the schools is stimulating and mobilizing community action and resources to meet such problems as,

> . . . inadequate guidance, and other specialized diagnostic and remedial services, ineffective control of unhealthy out-of-school environmental conditions, adult programs, job-placement, high rate of drop-outs, substandard health services, poor housing, intergroup tensions, inadequate recreation programs, antiquated methods of dealing with youth behavior problems on police and court levels.[37]

As it is the child with whom educators are chiefly concerned in the teaching-learning process, it might be well to examine his direct relationship to the problem of coordinated effort. How can the school best obtain for itself and its pupils the services it needs? How can the school get a playground it has requested for years? How can youngsters be provided proper care? How can the child with poor eyesight be given medical treatment beyond the financial ability of his family? How

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[36] J. Lloyd Trump, Education Summary, December 5, 1951, p. 3.

[37] Mezirow, op. cit., pp. 65-68.

can the youth who works late at night, then sleeps at his school desk, be helped?

If it is recognized that these and related school problems, especially in the category of behavior adjustment, are the concern and responsibility of the whole community, and that the school cannot solve them alone, and that they cannot be solved adequately by the school tapping each social resource separately, then the need for coordination becomes apparent. As early as 1940 some work had been accomplished at the local level in coordinated efforts in neighborhood social planning, which stressed the problems of schools. Neighborhood councils have appeared to meet this need.

> Neighborhood councils are composed of representatives from the city departments of health, education, welfare, police, library, and juvenile court as well as from private agencies, civic organizations, Parent-Teacher Associations, and churches. The membership becomes increasingly aware of social needs and articulate in its efforts to obtain an adequate social welfare program. Committees are formed to work on projects as the need for action is seen. Some of the projects which have been accomplished in neighborhood councils include the obtaining of a new school playground, securing adequate relief appropriations, compiling an inventory of neighborhood recreational facilities for distribution to school children, and establishment of a health center in the area of highest disease rates. All of these accomplishments were based upon research regarding the specific situation.
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> One of the most successful projects attempted by neighborhood councils is that of behavior adjustment of school children. The committee is termed the school committee or adjustment committee and is composed of representatives from the schools and social agencies dealing with behavior problems of children. The teacher refers the case of a particular child for confidential case discussion to the committee. All agencies which have previously known the child are invited to the committee meeting to present the description of their contacts with the child. It can

> readily be seen that the committee is able to suggest new treatment methods and resources which would probably not be available to any one school or agency. Furthermore, the work of the committee brings to light many children who need treatment early when the abnormal behavior first manifests itself. For this reason schools have found the committee work helpful. Members of the committee feel that they themselves develop sympathetic insight and understanding by participating in the work. The social worker and teacher dealing with the individual who had been referred often bring the cases back to the committee for review during the period of treatment. It is important that there be a central body to which all the neighborhood councils send delegates in order to give continuity and direction to the work as well as insure united effort throughout a city. If a full-time paid secretary can be obtained greater success is assured.[38]

In concluding this section, an observation by Seay and one by Whitelaw seem appropriate. Seay points out a development resulting from this trend for coordination of educative agencies:

> Adults, taking new interest in the school, become acquainted with the agencies and institutions that cooperate with it in serving youth. They see the results obtained by cooperative effort. They gain experience in planning and working with the community as a whole.[39]

This is an example of a concomitant result when a resource-use school taps community resources for the basic purpose of improving the teaching-learning process.

Developments in New York and Detroit

As stated previously, schools will need to follow such examples of community-wide planning as those set forth in the 1950 report of the

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[38] How to Know and How to Use Your Community, Department of Elementary School Principals, Washington, 1949, pp. 49-50.

[39] Maurice Seay, "Community Resources Are Teaching Materials," School Executive, (January, 1948), 14.

New York City Superintendent of Schools. For if a school is to make extensive use of resources in the teaching-learning process there are certain principles of operation it should consider. Unless a more flexible basis of operation, recognizing the need and the desire for resource utilization, is adopted, the traditional book learning situation will prevail. In addition, the organizational framework must be so constructed that teachers will be permitted and encouraged to bring the community into the classroom using appropriate techniques in the process. Furthermore, as involvement of the community is essential, the organizational structure of the school must have concern for community organizations and must be conducive to the establishment of cooperative working relations.

The work of the Citizenship Education Study in Detroit reflects a trend in an attempt to meet the challenge enunciated by Dale, who said that many youth in urban schools are not having any "real-life" experiences, and are out of contact with reality.[40] It, also, is an example of needed research in this area. This report is a reminder that objectivity or the scientific approach is just as important and necessary in resource utilization as it is in other educational practices. This is a study using carefully selected random sampling techniques of the extent to which sixth, ninth, and twelfth grade pupils are making use of community resources and are having direct experiences in the Metropolitan Detroit area. This is part of the trend away from generalizations based upon what educators "think" the situation is, to a station where scientific

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[40]Edgar Dale, Audio-Visual Methods in Teaching, p. 79.

studies employing the best random sampling techniques reveal the situation that actually exists. The findings indicated that a large number of teachers and schools in Detroit were not making sufficient use of available resources for providing direct experiences. The findings also revealed that teachers cannot assume that their students have had large numbers of enriching, direct experiences.[41]

For these reasons, and also because teachers were unaware of places to visit, did not know whom to contact, or the nature of services and materials available, a manual was prepared of places to visit, entitled, "Exploring Metropolitan Detroit."

Trends in Principles of Operation and Organization

Ivey points out specific ways for making use of resources. He regards the entire community as a power plant possessing the capacity to produce goods and services which spell human welfare or human misery. He describes ways to measure community resources and lists techniques for tapping these resources, based on actual experiences. While other educational writers generally say that the school should initiate a program for the release and utilization of resources, Ivey points out three ways to proceed.

1. Begin in and spread throughout the school into the community.
2. Begin with some school related organization as the Parent-Teachers' Association and spread into the school and community.

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[41] Exploring Your Community, the Citizenship Education Study of the Detroit Public Schools and Wayne University (mimeographed).

3. Begin in some agency, such as a civic club, chamber of commerce, planning board, or community council, and spread through the school and other community agencies.[42]

The following is an example of the first suggested step. A citizens' committee raised funds to conduct an elementary school project. It provided additional personnel and facilities for work and play activities, for developing the special talents of the children, and for sponsoring and financing clubs and camping trips. As an outgrowth of this program, several other citizens' groups merged their talents and resources to sponsor and conduct special programs in Basic English for adults, mental hygiene for pre-school children, the training of students preparing for teaching, a "teen-age" canteen, and an afterschool neighborhood recreation program.[43]

In light of those developments which have meant the involvement of the schools in practically every aspect of the community and have involved the community in the school, which have made some schools an integral part of the community, it means, according to Ivey, that,

> In a very real sense, teachers and administrators must become skilled observers and guides of human behavior. . . . For the school must assume a leadership relationship to adults; it must work with specialists from many different types of public agencies; it interprets scientific principles from life situations rather than textbooks.[44]

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[42] John Ivey, "Education Builds Community Welfare," School Executive, (January, 1948), 11-12.

[43] Superintendent's Report, New York, op. cit., pp. 19-20.

[44] Ivey, op. cit., pp. 11-12.

Pritchett indicated this problem on a broader scale when he described the Tennessee Valley Authority and its cooperation with other agencies and schools:

> It has sought to widen economic opportunity by an extensive program of interrelated physical and social engineering. Land and water and people have all been included in the equation to be solved.[45]

Another trend in this area, which also amplifies Ivey's observation that educators must develop high skills in human relations and interpretation of scientific principles and technical data is the work of the United States Employment Service in providing services to high school youth through cooperative, coordinated effort. A review of coordination between schools and the Employment Service will serve to illustrate successful procedures. During the thirties, the United States Employment Service adopted a policy of working with the public schools, initiated as a cooperative effort to help school-leavers and graduates find work in the local community. Special consultants and counselors developed working relationships with the local school community and the United States Employment Service based on the nature of the community and the community's cultural needs. Wherever possible, a resource analysis of the community was made.

In view of the urgent need today to marshal and train American human resources in face of the great international responsibility the federal government has assumed, top officials in the United States employment Service have stated that the employment service and the public schools

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[45] Pritchett, op. cit., p. 320.

must cooperate for the welfare of the nation. There must be an exchange of ideas and information. In addition, it is recommended that there be a coordination of effort by the schools, by the council of social agencies or social workers wherever they exist, and by the United States Employment Service.[46]

Directives have gone out to all state offices to cooperate with schools and render appropriate services. In some states there exists a remarkable combined program between the United States Employment Service and the public schools.

In 1951, there were 3,000 public secondary schools enjoying planned working agreements with the employment service. This joint enterprise rendered services to 250,000 students and provided complete counseling and testing services for 100,000 students.[47]

A significant development took place in October, 1950, when the United States Employment Service and the United States Office of Education issued a joint policy statement concerning cooperative relationships between local employment services and secondary schools. The policy recognises that the school and the employment service complement each other; that occupational information and counseling tools should be made available to the school for its use on guidance so that school records and recommendations would be of greatest assistance to the employment service

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[46] C. W. Odell, Chief, Testing and Counseling Service, United States Employment Service, personal interview, July 15, 1951, Gainesville, Florida.

[47] Ibid.

in its employment counseling and placement of youth.[48]

Within this cooperative framework various services have been rendered to the schools, including training for high school personnel in counseling. This is a direct attack upon the problem posed by Ivey, who stressed the need for the acquisition of new skills in interpretations of scientific principles and technical data. In this case, a government agency has provided specialized training for teachers.

The following statement from the Michigan State Employment Service is an indication of what is being done:

> Recognizing that the counseling and placement of high school graduates and students who leave school is the joint responsibility of the Michigan State Employment Service and the schools of the State, the Counseling Section of the Employment Service has started a program of work-shops throughout the State. The purpose of the workshops is to acquaint teachers and counselors with certain techniques of counseling and testing, and to provide specific information of a helpful nature. Much stress is placed upon areas of cooperation between our agency and the schools. Since November, 1949, 130 high school principals, counselors and guidance directors have been trained in our methods, and will be able to help their students get full advantage of the service offered by our agency. Seventy-two high schools have been represented in these workshops.[49]

These examples of contributions of resources to the teaching-learning process indicate acceptance of the basic philosophy stressed by Muntyan. He insists that the schools by themselves do not possess

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[48] United States Employment Service, "Cooperation of Federal and Affiliated State Employment Services with Schools," Special Release.

[49] Michigan Employment Service Messenger, II (January, 1952).

the totality of talents, or expertness of knowledge needed to provide all the services and the functional curriculum that schools must provide for youth today.

Educators need more information about the basic principles and techniques that resulted in successful cooperation and coordination between the New York schools and their resource agencies. It will also be valuable to examine carefully the procedures developed between the various branch offices of the United States Employment Service and the 3,000 high schools in these cooperative programs.

Educational Youth Commissions

Various commissions have been organized to study current problems of youth and to seek ways to improve schools. An interesting example is the First Commission on Life Adjustment Education for Youth which met in Chicago in 1950, with 184 representatives from forty-one states working together to draft a comprehensive report.

Charles A. Prosser was probably the prime mover in bringing about this commission with the famous Prosser Resolution, which states that "Twenty per cent of high school students were prepared for college, 20 per cent were prepared for desirable, skilled occupations, but the remaining 60 per cent of secondary age youth were being neglected, were not receiving the proper training, the life adjustment training and vocational training to prepare them for useful citizenship."[50] Prosser made

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[50] Vitalizing Secondary Education, Bulletin 1951, No. 3, Federal Security Agency, United States Office of Education, p. 12.

a strong plea for cooperative planning and action by general and vocational educators.

This commission on life adjustment differed from prior efforts in two important respects: (1) it involved the joint efforts of leaders in general and vocational education; and (2) it focused on action programs rather than on pronouncements. It represented a tremendous marshalling of human resources devoted to the analysis and improvement of education. Its work can be of considerable benefit to those schools that will consult it and make use of the findings. One of the major purposes of this study was to develop ways of making education realistic and functional. For example, the commission pointed out that in attempting to provide vocational education, many high school communities find it difficult to meet the requirements with respect to facilities and personnel. This requires serious consideration because vocational education has made substantial contributions to life-adjustment education, especially by making use of realistic problems concerned with farm, industry, home and community life, and has used resources to improve the teaching-learning process. The commission suggests cooperation involving general and vocational educational leaders, industrial management, labor unions, and government.[51]

The commission performs a service when it reviews a very disturbing trend during the thirties, when thousands of youth, despite the difficulty of securing gainful employment, either did not enter high school

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[51] Ibid., p. 14.

or dropped out after one or two years. A study was made of school-leavers in Providence, Rhode Island, which revealed that great numbers felt that high school had nothing to offer, that high school could not help them, that it was not worthwhile.[52] A similar study made in Camden, New Jersey, revealed two main reasons for leaving school, which were: first, not interested (45 per cent); and, second, discouraged (29 per cent).

A careful analysis of the data recorded in Camden, New Jersey, showed that athletic and extra-curricular programs reached less than 50 per cent of these children.[53] This study illustrates how great was the need to improve the teaching-learning process. Educators failed to recognize that the teaching-learning process was inadequate. They failed to provide "real experience." There were scattered examples of successful programs and some literature in the field, but the great majority were clinging to the traditional book-learning approach, adhering to the Alexandrian concept.

As a consequence of the failure to provide a functional curriculum, youth lost faith in an unrealistic program stressing college preparation, and failing to help them solve problems of daily living, such as getting and holding jobs, maintaining good home and family life, and planning wholesome recreation.[54] The commission stated that many high schools

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[52]Providence Study of School Leavers, Providence Board of Education, Providence, Rhode Island (mimeographed).

[53]A summary of "A Study of Secondary School Drop-outs During the School Years 1940-41 and 1945-46," by Howard W. Brown (mimeographed).

[54]Vitalizing Secondary Education, op. cit., p. 19.

became highly selective in enrollment of pupils, their curriculums became academic and college dominated and their instruction became bookish and authoritarian. "Educational leaders have been trying ever since to mould this public high school into a comprehensive school serving all youth. This study is devoted to the development of ways to make education realistic and functional."[55]

Among other items pointed out by the commission, the following seems to be important:

There should be closer coordination with other activities furthering vocational proficiency. There should be more school work programs, including apprenticeship training; functional general education needs to be developed. More opportunities for learning about the many aspects of vocational life should be provided for youth.

The Commission on Life Adjustment Education for Youth points out some trends in regard to implementation of proposals and recommendations. The Committee on Orientation in Secondary Education, 1932, became the only national body to project a campaign to stimulate the study of its proposals with the purpose of getting them commonly accepted and put into practice in the schools. This was an important group, for out of it grew the National Association of Secondary School Principals. The significance of this development becomes apparent when it is considered that earlier efforts to define the purposes and policies of secondary education were college dominated.

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[55] Ibid., p. 11.

A noteworthy trend is that the secondary principals are trying to set their own purposes and policies.

> This is very important in closing the gap between present practice and the proposed educational programs to meet the needs of all youth. . . . They are assuming responsibility to work out solutions, to foster implementation.[56]

The report of the Commission on Life Adjustment Education, extensive as it is, fails to comprehend how community resources may be utilized to improve the teaching-learning process. It merely says: "Schools and lay leaders should utilize all available resources and manpower, including youth of secondary school age, for the total improvement of the community."[57]

Another commission which should be considered is the American Youth Commission established by the American Council on Education in 1935. Several studies resulted in an effort to determine the facts basic to a study of youth problems; their education, health, recreation, employment and social welfare. These reports focused attention on the youth itself. There can be no doubt that the depression and the apparent failure of the schools as previously described, and the report of President Hoover's Research Committee on Recent Social Trends,[58] stimulated the organization of this commission.

What is of interest to this study is that the American Youth

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[56] Ibid., p. 17.

[57] Ibid., p. 39.

[58] J. T. Greenman, President's Committee on Social Trends, Recent Social Trends in the United States.

Commission appraised the facilities and resources available for serving youth's needs, planned programs to help him solve his problems, and attempted to call attention to its findings. However, it failed in certain respects. First, many of its staff members were not in positions of authority in the public schools, which was a limiting factor in putting its findings into actual practice; and second, the glaring deficiencies laid bare by these studies were forgotten when the war brought work for everybody and increased opportunities for youth from every walk of life.[59]

A more recent committee sponsored by the American Council on Education has been more successful in implementing its findings. This was the Committee on Southern Regional Studies and Education which was organized in 1944 in recognition of the possibilities of improving communities, local, state, and regional, through stimulating studies, and research of communities, and then translating the results of such research into non-technical instructional materials for use by schools and other agencies. The first efforts in this direction were begun by an advisory panel organized by the Tennessee Valley Authority. The work of the committee has been recognized by the General Education Board, which has helped finance its operations.[60]

Stimulated by these efforts, programs already started in most of the southern states are striving to bring out the development of

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[59] Vitalizing Secondary Education, op. cit., p. 22.

[60] "Schools and Community Resources," Special bulletin reprinted from School Executive (January, 1948), p.4.

human and natural resources throughout the region.[61]

A valuable contribution to this study of resource utilization was made by the American Council on Education in 1941, when it compiled and published a book, Youth Serving Organizations, which was a fairly comprehensive survey of national non-governmental associations serving youth.[62]

Youth Serving Organizations

An encouraging development is the increasing number of organizations, associations, commissions and foundations of a non-professional nature, that are making contributions to youth and to the schools. Monroe reported 330 youth serving organizations of national scope. In the majority of cases the membership ages were from twelve to twenty-four. While this movement involves several million youth and is an encouraging development, yet the most significant point is that a large proportion of all youth are not and never have been members of these various youth organizations.[63]

Chambers, in his survey of youth serving organizations, observed certain trends, which, to him, seemed encouraging. His observations are contrary to the views of Tenny and Featherstone and others, who see chaos, jealousy, and rivalry rather than cooperation and coordination.

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[61] Ibid., p. 5.

[62] Chambers, op. cit.

[63] Monroe, op. cit., p. 1519.

The following trends reported by Chambers seem worthy of consideration:

1. Mutual understanding and cooperation among non-professional associations is replacing a former state of emotional jealousies and destructive rivalries. The broad view of the welfare of youth as a whole is taking precedence over the narrow view of the interests of any one group.
2. The various agencies of social service offering programs of education, recreation, consultation, remedial, and related auxiliary services are showing a growing degree of coordination and cooperation. They recognize the need of weaving their services into a seamless fabric without gaps in services to youth.
3. Cooperation between schools and other youth serving agencies is being stimulated by the increasing recognition of ability and experience in leadership of non-school associations as a professional asset for the teachers. It would seem that the implication here is that by calling these human and social resources professional assets for teachers, what really is meant is that they are a supplement, an addition to the teaching-learning process.[64]

Chambers' remarks on the role of the teacher seem quite appropriate for the encouragement of resources utilization in the teaching-learning

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[64]Chambers, op. cit., Introduction.

process. "The teacher is a key person in community youth service and can perform important functions in advancing the integration of the efforts of the several agencies, if educated to understand and appreciate their services and given reasonable opportunity to cooperate with them."[65]

Non-Professional Citizens Commissions, Committees, and Foundations

"Citizen's commissions are receiving more than temporary local attention. . . ."[66] "The role of citizen's committees is constantly expanding and resulting in more specific achievements as the confidence and knowledge of both the citizens and the school administrators increase."[67] The above statements are indicative of a developing trend which holds the promise of bringing forth important human and social resources for the advancement of public education. Citizen's committees are no longer sporadic and poorly conceived. Rather, many of them are in contact with state, regional, and national groups and commissions, and attempt to follow tested patterns of action and basic principles which have been explored and reported.

One recent organization is dedicated to the task of working with citizen's committees throughout the nation. This organization is the National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools, organized in 1949.

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[65] Ibid., p. 151.

[66] "Organizational Work of State Citizens Committees," School Executive, (January, 1952), 49.

[67] Ibid., p. 50.

It has two major goals:

1. To help Americans realize how important public schools are to an expanding democracy.
2. To arouse in each community the intelligence and the will to improve public schools.

Today, 1,500 citizens school improvement committees contact the National Citizens Committee, which is compiling and synthesizing their experiences and suggested procedures.

The Citizens Commission believes that it has detected an encouraging trend: "Citizens again are accepting their historic responsibility for public education and are providing the facilities the children need."[68]

Reller has reported on the types of citizens committees and basic principles that have evolved. Reller believes that three basic principles for citizens committees have emerged:

1. Adherence to some written rules or by-laws, which provide the definite framework within which the committee operates.
2. Broad citizen representation.
3. Ability to involve the resources of the community that are presently organized.[69]

In connection with these basic principles Reller points out two

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[68]"Report to the People," School Executive, LXXI (May, 1952), 41.

[69]E. L. Reller, "Citizens Committees," School Executive, LXXI (May, 1952), 70-71.

disturbing trends:

1. The demands made upon the tax dollar by the defense program, with its possible consequent results or probable effects upon the support of education.
2. The large educational needs of the society complicated by lack of clearly defined and agreed-upon educational purposes.[70]

Additional work has been done by Hamlin, who has analyzed the types of citizens committees, and lists the following types: (1) boards of education; (2) Parent-Teacher Association; (3) lay groups that support particular school activities; (4) community organizations formed for purposes other than working with schools; (5) community councils (11,000 estimated) made up of representatives of community organizations and agencies, nearly always interested in schools; and (6) independent citizens groups organized to assist or influence the schools; these usually arise when some citizens are convinced they cannot get what they want from the schools without applying pressure on them.[71] (7) School-initiated citizens committees, generally five categories, such as (a) temporary and continuing, (b) school-wide and specialized, vocational, health, adult, social, (c) neighborhood, community, county, state, (d) having differing

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[70] Ibid., pp. 70-71.

[71] A recent outstanding example is the group of citizens in Arlington, Virginia, who became greatly dissatisfied with inadequate provisions for a greatly expanding school population and compelled a reluctant school board and administrative staff, with their help, to make far-reaching changes.

functions, (e) having differing memberships.[72]

Major results from these school-initiated committees have been studies of school problems leading to specific recommendations, and an effective two-way communication between schools and citizens.

Hamlin suggests that a sound basic principle to follow in school-initiated committees is that the first committee set up by a school should be a desirable precedent for others to follow. He is disturbed by a trend he deplores, namely, that "There is no justification for the rash experimentation with methods of organization which have already proved inadequate that is going on in the country today." In consequence, he recommends that "School boards will consider adequately what they are getting into as they shape a statement of policy dealing with such matters as the following: the field of the committee, its functions, the number of members, the manner in which members are chosen, the terms of the members, the manner of replacing members, relationship of the committee to other citizens committees, and procedures."[73] Hamlin believes that the time may be coming when every school will be expected to provide channels for citizen participation.[74]

A specific example of a citizens committee comes from New York City, which reports activities that are direct examples of the type of resource-use activities with which this study is greatly concerned.

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[72] H. M. Hamlin, "Organizing School-Initiated Citizens Committees," Journal of Educational Leadership, IX (February, 1952), 305-306.

[73] Ibid.

[74] Ibid.

Citizens, individually, in citizen groups, and as part of civic organizations are contributing funds, personnel, facilities, services, to enrich the school program. In one specific instance, the Chelsea Citizens Committee raised funds to help Public School No. 33. It provided additional personnel and facilities for work and play activities, for developing the special talents of children. In sponsored and financed clubs and camping trips. These additional resources made possible the care of children from 9:00 A.M. to 5:00 P.M. during the regular school year and the summer vacation period. This example has stimulated other citizens and civic groups to help enrich programs in other New York schools, including services to adults.[75]

Rugg pointed out, as reported in the second chapter, that foundations have, since 1920, made direct contributions to education, thus constituting an important resource for educators. These foundations have sponsored various projects, committees, studies, and reports. One of the most recent is the Ford Foundation, which has impressive financial resources. It sponsors projects for the establishment of peace, the strengthening of democracy, the strengthening of the economy, education in a democratic society, and individual behavior in human relations. The Ford Foundation is also sponsoring a controversial teacher-education program at the University of Arkansas. Another of its projects is The People Act Center, located at State College, Pennsylvania, which broadcasts over a national television-radio network. The People Act Center presents real

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[75]Superintendent's Report, New York, op. cit., pp. 19-20.

life radio series showing Americans working together to solve their local problems. Several of its broadcasts have been accounts of schools and their communities working together, pooling their resources, to provide a better program for youth. Transcripts are sent free to interested persons and full length recordings are now available. For those schools and communities desiring "expert" help, the People Act Center will put them in touch with qualified consultants in their area.[76]

Governmental Youth Agencies and the Schools

As pointed out in the preceding sections on youth commissions, the failure of the schools to provide a functional curriculum resulted in a high rate of school-leaving. The Providence, Rhode Island, study and the Camden, New Jersey, study on drop-outs indicated that youth left school because they felt it had nothing to offer. They felt that school could not, or would not, help them solve their problems of daily living. They were not interested in school. They could see no meaningful relations between the world of work and reality, and education. The Regents Inquiry into the Secondary Schools of New York pointed out that New York schools were not preparing students adequately for the kind of world they were going to live in.

The depression of the thirties focused attention on the failure of public secondary schools to attract all types of students and to provide for their needs.[77] It was at this critical period when the federal

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[76]The Ford Foundation, Annual Report, The Fund for Adult Education, 1951.

[77]Vitalizing Secondary Education, op. cit., p. 19.

government intervened, establishing a new precedent in American education. During this critical period the federal government developed the Civilian Conservation Corps and the National Youth Administration programs, with the Civilian Conservation Corps enrolling 2,500,000 youth, three-fourths of whom were of high school age. For the first time, under the aegis of the federal government, thousands of youth came to see meaningful relationships between education and the world of work. There appeared to be much truth in the claim that this camp-work-education type of experiment was an inevitable outcome of the failure of high schools to provide services which were meaningful to a large percentage of youths of high school age.[78] This experiment utilized a wide variety of natural and human resources, and the resultant learning opportunities provided were varied, and related to many important aspects of daily living.

However, the Civilian Conservation Corps and the National Youth Administration were criticized severely as permanent auxiliary services to public secondary education. It was argued that such a federal agency would have destroyed historic policies of placing the education of youth under state and local control. Its feature of federal payments directly to youth would have threatened the attempts made by secondary schools to develop functional and democratic programs geared closely to community life.[79]

Thus it seems that the trend of direct federal participation in

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[78] Ibid., p. 20.

[79] Ibid., p. 21.

public education was a transitory experience. Perhaps it was a key factor in arousing public education and in stimulating the move to begin examining many practices and re-shaping the secondary program. In relation to this point, there are three interesting recommendations from the Commission on Life Adjustment Education for Youth contained in its recommendations for enriching education for home and family living.

1. Making the curriculum functional by having available for teachers and pupils the necessary materials for effective learning-teaching situations; allowing time in the schools for the use of these materials.
2. Utilizing community and school resources, books, people, and materials to enrich the curriculum.
3. Coordinating the school program with that of existing agencies and organizations in the community.[80]

There is a great need for the implementation of these recommendations. Even if school leaders agree that they are worthy proposals, they will need to know what specific principles and procedures will operate most effectively in realizing these objectives.

An interesting commentary on the federal program is made by the Advisory Committee on Education in their supplementary study of the National Youth Administration.

They concluded that the work-projects program for out-of-school

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[80] Ibid., pp. 88-89.

youth demonstrated that:

1. By this means work experience, often leading to admission to private employment, can be provided relatively inexpensively.
2. Youth work projects can be initiated and conducted by local communities to the ultimate mutual benefit of the youth and the community.
3. These are possibilities in the future development of a program of work combined with education of a practical nature for those youth to whom the conventional school curriculum is distasteful or ill-adapted.[81]

Teacher Education

Teacher education is important to this movement involving the community to provide "real experience" and a functional curriculum. As this is a new approach to education, it requires special attention in teacher education institutions, and in in-service programs for teachers on the job.

Regarding teachers, the American Society for Curriculum Development Yearbook says:

> The trend, in effecting change, in getting teachers to make more use of new methods, such as use of audio-visual materials, excursions into the community, surveys and committee reports and teacher pupil planning are all new techniques with which some teachers feel insecure.

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[81] Monroe, op. cit., pp. 1518-1519.

> Indications of present trends are that the "broken front" approach is more effective than asking the entire group to change.[82]

The Sloan Foundation, as an outgrowth of its research in applied economics, stimulated a development in teacher education institutions to interest teachers and prepare them for involvement in community-related activities. The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education responded to foster and encourage interesting developments in this area.[83] When Olsen investigated the preparation of teachers for community leadership and activities he found that about one-third of the fully accredited teacher educating institutions were offering their students some type of introduction to philosophy, program, procedures, and problems of community-centered education.[84] A recent article by Diemer emphasizes a new trend in teacher education. School and community--in short, the whole community with its agencies, institutions, and resources--must be a part of the laboratory used in teacher preparation. The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education has greatly encouraged this movement. It has stressed this viewpoint in its publication, School and Community Laboratory Experience in Teacher Education.[85]

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[82]American Society for Curriculum Development, 1952 Yearbook. Ch. 4 Social Change in Our Schools, p. 53, p. 61.

[83]Wayne E. Tappan, "The Project in Applied Economics at the University of Florida," pp.30, 125.

[84]E. G. Olsen, "National Survey of Teacher Education in Community Study Techniques," Educational Research, XXIV (October, 1943), 421-435.

[85]G. W. Diemer, "What About Teacher Education," National Education Association Journal, (May, 1952), 294.

The Educational Excursion and the Reverse Field Trip

Atyeo described early ventures with the educational excursion and Tippett described in considerable detail the extensive development of the field trip, at an early date in the Parker School District. In the intervening period, considerable interest has been aroused in the educational excursion and practically all educators now agree that it has positive values. However, it is not used extensively and many teachers while rendering lip service to the concept find many reasons for not making more use of the educational excursion. Duncan found, over a two year period, while studying Negro high schools in North Carolina, that 62 per cent of the teachers made very little use of the local community and that the entire 62 per cent failed to utilize a single resource person in their classrooms.[86]

A group of schools in Michigan, clustered in four counties around Detroit, are working on a new development, "Bringing the Field trip into the Classroom." They call this the reverse field trip, which is intended to bring to the pupils most of the advantages of the field trip and to overcome the difficulties encountered by teachers in planning field trips. For example, the "Children's Museum" in Detroit was a key instrument in implementing the reverse field trip. Catalogs of the lending collections with announcements of new materials are distributed through the offices of the school principals to all schools. Daily delivery services are provided to all schools. During the year 1950-1951, it was reported that

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[86]S. E. Duncan, "Utilization of Community Resources in the Instructional Program of the Secondary School," p. 128.

95 per cent of the elementary schools and junior high schools, and sixteen of the twenty-two high schools used materials exhibits, models and the like from the museum.[87]

Other schools reporting successes with the reverse field trip list such things as parent resource files, pupil-teacher surveys of valuable resource people in the community, and tape recordings made by key community leaders who find it impossible to visit the school. One school district has "borrowed" large-screen television sets from local dealers, when some important national or international event has occurred, to bring the world into the classroom. After a year's experience during which period the basic rules for the use of audio-visual aids were followed, the district reports a stimulating and enriching contribution to the curriculum. This school district also used special exhibits prepared at the Institute of Service at Cranbrook to enrich study of the natural sciences.[88]

Philadelphia has probably demonstrated the value of television as a resource to the greatest extent and has shown that public schools can make excellent use of the modern technical developments in communication. When educators in Philadelphia realized that the commercial sponsors and professional television personnel had little interest in producing education shows, they decided to produce their own educational programs with teachers as producers and children as actors. As a result,

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[87]"Bringing the Field Trip into the Classroom," Action, December, 1951, Metropolitan Detroit Bureau of Cooperative School Studies.

[88]Ibid.

Philadelphia, with 670 sets in the schools, provides five hours per week of educational television shows. Some 27,500 pupils each week see their own school-produced television shows.[89]

Direct Source of Available Resources

There are literally hundreds of free and inexpensive teaching aids, instructional materials, models, and kits available to public schools. Many of these are carefully catalogued. The Educators Guide to Free Slide Films lists 431 titles and 21,000 films, or miniature posters; the Guidebook to Free Films lists 1,927 different titles. Miller's Sources of Free and Inexpensive Teaching Aids list pictures, exhibits, maps, charts, posters, models and the like available under 140 topic headings. There are other such catalogues available, including many listings from state universities, industry, and government agencies. While these sources of free materials are not completely satisfactory, and do not serve local schools as efficiently as a local materials bureau, they do constitute a valuable resource. Miller says, "Sources of free and inexpensive teaching aids is a special boon to the educator struggling with an inadequate curriculum budget.[90]

Summary

In summarizing the developments that seem typical in resource utilization in the teaching-learning process, evidence indicates an

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[89] "Philadelphia Schools Use Television," Life, (March 31, 1952).

[90] Bruce Miller, Sources of Free and Inexpensive Teaching Aids, Ontario, California, 1950.

increasing emphasis upon community centered education. While this chapter is not an exhaustive treatment of the subject, it has presented those activities which are representative of the significant movements in community centered education. The following generalizations seem warranted by the data presented.

Schools would have moved ahead into community centered education much earlier if they had kept pace with their dynamic communities. Their isolation prevented the community from informing them of the kind of education needed and kept the community from contributing the valuable resources it had to offer to the teaching-learning process.

Community centered education calls for changes in the attitudes of teachers and lay persons. That there has been a change in attitude, with both the community and teachers accepting new roles, is evidenced by the existence today of 1,500 lay citizens committees working on school problems, by developments in teacher education in colleges, and among teachers in service. Olsen's study found that one-third of the fully accredited teacher education institutions were offering their students some type of introduction to the philosophy, programs, procedures, and problems of community centered education.

While the idea of the educational excursion and the use of community resources is quite recent, extensive development is taking place. Some schools have made outstanding advances.

People have demonstrated that they will rally their forces and resources to preserve, strengthen, and "modernize" their schools. They

have rededicated themselves to the encouragement and support of the schools.

The effect of the disappearance of the primary community has not yet been fully realized. Where it has been realized, lay people are equally as anxious as educators to provide life adjustment experiences in the curriculum.

From one viewpoint, six basic trends of community centered education may be identified. These are: life adjustment education, democratization of learning, the tendency of schools to become community service centers, the development of coordinating community councils, the utilization of community resources, and teacher education programs for this new development in education.

Research in the fields of sociology and psychology in ways to effect change and in ways of working with people are providing workable techniques for educators to apply in moving into community centered education. These techniques are helping to bring about faster the spread of resource-use schools, which operate within the framework of community centered education.

If functional education is to be effective, it must utilize community resources to a considerable extent.

Reports indicate that more schools are turning to a functional curriculum to prepare youth for daily living and to help them face the transitory period between school and job.

Cooperative education, which is a version of functional education,

is becoming more widespread. It makes excellent use of resources and shows students meaningful relations between school and the world of work.

Progress has been made in the area of coordination and cooperation between schools and other educative agencies. There has been an encouraging development from the Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education in 1934 to the present. In this early attempt, lay people were brought in merely to give advice and information. Results were superficial. Since then, important advances have been made. Today, the coordinating community council is quite representative of governmental agencies, civic organizations, and professional, church, and service organizations. A basic principle has evolved. Schools alone cannot solve behavior adjustment problems for they are the responsibility of the entire community. Further, these adjustment problems cannot be solved adequately by the school tapping each social resource separately; there must be coordination of effort of all youth serving organizations. The work of the Minnesota Youth Commission and its manual, The Community Organizes for Youth, and the publication of the Department of Elementary School Principals, How to Know, How to Use your Community, are examples of progressive work in this area.

If a school is to make use of resources in the teaching-learning process, certain principles of organization must operate. There must be a flexible basis of operation. The organizational framework must permit and encourage teachers to utilize resources. The organizational framework must have concern for community organizations and be conducive to cooperative working relations.

There is evidence of the scientific approach. Schools are moving into resource utilization on the basis of surveys, of careful studies of data revealing the actual situation, rather than basing programs on generalizations of what they "think" the situation is in regard to students and community. On the basis of these studies, schools are developing manuals of procedure, guides to the community and its resources, and they are conducting in-service training for teachers. An example is the work of the Citizenship Education Study in Detroit.

Most educators are agreed that schools usually initiate projects in use of resources which involve the community. When this occurs, it represents a break from the Alexandrian concept of formal learning. However, lay citizens are often alert. In many instances community groups have initiated projects to contribute their resources to enrich the teaching-learning process. In the case of Arlington, Virginia, the community was far in advance of its school and led the way to a modern program centered on the child and his problems and needs.

As a result of community centered education, educators are developing increased skills in human relations. They are learning to interpret scientific principles and technical data.

Working relations between the United States Employment Service and the schools have provided services to thousands of youth in counseling and job placement. It has helped to demonstrate meaningful relations between school and the world of work. It fills a great need which otherwise would not have been met in many cases.

Evidence indicates that, in many instances, youth leave school

because they are not interested or because they are discouraged. Their needs are not being met. Despite the controversy over the National Youth Administration and the Civilian Conservation Corps programs, they did prove the value of camp-work experience, and did utilize resources to a considerable extent. For the first time, thousands of youth saw meaningful relations between education and the world of reality. The impact of these federal programs and the youth commissions has focused attention on functional education. As the functional curriculum makes use of community resources, it is apparent that the utilization of resources and community centered education are becoming increasingly important.

The study of youth serving organizations revealed these trends. Mutual understanding and cooperation are replacing rivalry and confusion. There is increasing concern for the broad welfare of youth. There is recognition of the need of merging and combining services, of integration to eliminate gaps in service to youth. There is recognition by the schools of ability and leadership in non-school associations, which is a professional asset to teachers. It is a valuable supplement to the teaching-learning process.

While citizens committees have operated in America for a long time, in many cases they were futile and unable to make effective contributions to schools. They are becoming important today. Their efforts have resulted in specific achievements. In many cases they are well organized, they follow certain principles of tested patterns of action, which have been explored and reported. The recently organized

National Citizens Committee is the nucleus of these extensive activities, and is in contact with over 1,500 citizens committees.

The evidence indicates that important segments of educational theorists and practical educators in the field have moved steadily toward ever closer and more functional relationship with the supporting community. There have been successes and failures, but the underlying trend has persisted. Non-school community agencies and institutions have recognized their responsibility for sharing creatively in the complete education of youth.

CHAPTER IV

DEVELOPMENT OF THE INSTRUMENT AND PLANS FOR ITS APPLICATION IN SELECTED SCHOOLS

In the two previous chapters the background of resource utilization in teaching and learning was reviewed and analyzed. The evidence supports the assumption that the use of resources to vitalize the instructional program is a developing field of its own and that it is not to be confused with the attempts to teach children the use of human and natural resources, as worthy as such educational objectives may be. Reputable educational theorists have long advocated supplementing teaching methods with the use of whatever available resources will make learning real. Some schools, and teachers scattered through many other schools, have pioneered in the use of resources in order to do a better job of teaching children and youth in a society which has become more complex and has had removed from it some of the educative effects of the primary face to face relationships of earlier society.

The central problem of this study is to compile the generalizations on the utilization of resources in the teaching-learning process for the purpose of having educators in selected schools indicate whether such generalizations are applicable in their schools. In order that a usable instrument may be developed and placed in the hands of a sampling of teachers, supervisors and administrators, it has been

necessary to develop criteria for choosing statements from the various sources, to define the scope of the categories in the list of statements, and to make plans for securing the cooperation of personnel in the schools to be studied.

Sources of Selected Statements

Most of the statements have been taken from writings which have reported attempts to improve instructional procedures. Individual educators, faculties working together in schools to develop better practices and organized groups have been among those responsible for the literature on resource utilization in the teaching-learning process. Pertinent information may be found in reports of projects dealing only incidentally with resource utilization, for example, the community school conceived as one approach towards raising the quality of living. Proponents of the conservation and development of human and natural resources also have been among those who observed the increased motivation to learn when vitalized materials and methods were used. Educators in faculty meetings, in group discussions and in conferences frequently make statements which might be identified among the list of generalizations which this study is attempting to develop and refine.[1]

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[1]A trial questionnaire was developed with the hope that teachers would contribute additional statements. Generalizations thus obtained would be used to supplement those principles obtained from other sources. It was assumed that many original statements to be made by several hundred teachers would serve as a check against statements obtained from the literature and the other sources ultimately used in this study. However, due to difficulties in communication of thought,

In order to avoid the use of more than two hundred additional footnotes in this study showing the source of each statement that was finally used in the instrument, a system of coding the sources of the selected statements as they appear in Appendix B has been devised to show item by item where they may be found in the general bibliography. These coded items keyed to the bibliography have been grouped together in Chart 1, Appendix C. As this Chart is quite extensive identifying the original 192 items, and the additional sixty-one items, for a total of 253 items, it is considered more practical to incorporate it in the Appendix. An explanation on how to use the information in the Chart accompanies it.

Recording, Analysis and Classification of Statements

Criteria

To identify and to select generalizations for consideration for the check list, the following criteria were used:

A statement, idea or principle concerning resource utilization in the teaching-learning process, or any such statement which by inference seemed appropriate.

Any statement which seemed to tend towards a rule of action in resource utilization.

Any description of specific practices or methods occurring

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the trial questionnaire, reproduced in Appendix A, did not yield the desired statements. Use of the trial questionnaire was abandoned. Educators in the schools selected for this study did much better in making suggestions after they had worked through the instrument developed from writings and other sources.

in several places so that the inference was clear that a generalization was appropriate.

Process

As these statements were selected from the various sources, each item was recorded on file cards. The statements listed on the file cards were then examined for the purpose of determining whether they met the criteria. Then they were analyzed to determine if there was a probable basis for classification. Tentative categories were set up. As the process of analysis and classification was continued, five categories emerged.

This analysis of the research seemed to indicate that five distinct areas were important to resource utilization in the teaching-learning process. The items in these categories might be considered more in the nature of generalizations than basic principles, with the exception of the one category labeled basic principles. The statements in the basic principle category are fundamental to the entire process of resource utilization in the schools.

These five categories were evaluation, basic principles, operating practices, teaching techniques and organizational principles and practices. The file cards which contained these statements were regrouped under these five headings which will be described further on in the chapter. As the statements were being classified the scope of each category was understood as it will be described later. These five categories provided the framework for the instrument used in the schools selected for the study. They provided an approach to organization of the generalizations for submitting them to the schools for identification and corroboration.

Scope of the Categories

Evaluation

Evaluation may be employed in estimating the degree to which pupils are achieving the objectives which are expressed or implied in resource utilization. The evaluation instruments may include anecdotal records, paper and pencil tests, and controlled observation techniques. Evaluation is necessary for determining that valid use is being made of resources and for determining that resource utilization is making a definite contribution to the teaching-learning process.

In cases where resource utilization has been made part of the teaching-learning process, evaluation has been based on broad personality changes, and the achievement of stated objectives, which have included subject matter achievement, attitudes, interests, ideals, ways of thinking, work habits, and personal and social adaptability.[1]

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[1]Edward G. Olsen, School and Community, p. 318. Olsen suggests four basic steps in evaluation for utilization of resources: defining the goals, collecting evidence of achievement, deciding the present degree of success, and drawing inferences for future policy.

See also Louis Raths, "Some Evaluations of the Trip," Educational Research Bulletin, XVII (October, 1938), pp 189-208. Raths lists results from field trips as a teaching technique, concluding that carefully planned direct experiences may result in clarifying the beliefs which students hold. Raths believes that greater allegiance to human values, firmer faith in democratic principles, better understanding of social problems and consideration of possible solutions result from the use of the field trips.

See also Florida School Bulletin, IX (March, 1947), p. 26. According to the Florida School Bulletin, actual field study, as a teaching-learning technique, brings about shifts in social attitudes, provides experiences in considering social problems in natural settings, stimulates discussion, further research and language and creative activities. As a further result, students learn to get along better with each other, interests in many aspects of a situation are stimulated and rich and permanent learning results.

Items in this category included specific steps for evaluation, and were concerned with attitudes, interest, appreciations, personal-social relations and philosophy of life.

Basic Principles

Items in this category are concerned with basic principles governing the use of resources, the role of the teacher, the role of lay persons, the function of leadership and the role of the school in the community. There are items on public relations, curriculum organization and curriculum construction, the place of the field trip and related activities, and the question of subject matter education or life experience education.

Operating Practices

This category includes generalizations concerning procedures, ways and means of operation in getting at the resources and making them a vital part of the total school program.

Fisk makes an important observation concerning operating practices. He points out that whatever practices are followed, a large measure of inventiveness must be employed in adopting known techniques or developing new ones to meet the needs of the local situation.[2]

Generalizations in this category are concerned with involvement of the community, interpreting the school program to the community,

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[2]Robert S. Fisk, Public Understanding of What Good Schools Can Do, p. 48.

communication between school and community, flexibility of schedule, integration of resources into the teaching-learning process and provision for cooperation and coordination between school and community.

Teaching Techniques

As resource utilization in the teaching-learning process is a definite break with traditional education, the teaching techniques employed have considerable importance. However, no standardized pattern is recommended, for it is recognized that it would be difficult to establish the superiority of one method over another.

This category is concerned with provisions for individual differences, student initiative, pupil responsibility and life adjustment. It has generalizations concerning teacher-pupil planning, assimilation of factual data, attitudes and interests.

As a result of available evidence, generalizations in this category have focused considerable attention upon developing meaningful relations, and the inclusion of "real life" experiences in the teaching-learning process. Writers in the field have stressed these points. Regarding the first point, developing meaningful relations, Wrightstone seems to have demonstrated that superior results are obtained in curriculum changes when the changes are designed to make the learning experiences more significant and meaningful to the learners.[3]

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[3] William S. Monroe, Encycleopedia of Educational Research, p. 750.

The second point, "real life" experiences, has also been a subject of investigation. Several basic studies which have been concerned with the relative effectiveness of experience upon learning indicate that attitudes and behavior patterns can be changed more readily and with more lasting effectiveness through direct rather than vicarious experiences.[4] What is of significance to this study is that the field trip has been utilized most frequently as a means of providing first hand experience.[5] The items used in this category are concerned with the learning activities directed by the teacher, in and out of the classroom. In most instances they are specific statements of actual techniques developed for the use of resources in the teaching-learning process.

Organisational Principles

The evidence gathered from the literature in the field indicates that there is a definite relationship between the organizational framework of the school and the degree to which it will utilize resources in the teaching-learning process.

Generalizations in this category roughly fall under resource-use education, community centered education, flexibility, guide-lines and provisions for coordination and cooperation with other educative youth serving organizations in the community. Centralization of

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[4] Ibid.

[5] Ibid.

materials and responsibility is stressed by Tippett in describing the materials bureau in the Parker School District.[6] Olsen recommends an extension of the materials bureau into a service center which will act as clearing house, resource library and instructional agency.[7]

Generally speaking, the items in this category are concerned with the organizational procedures and with the principles of organization. The procedures include those concerned with the daily schedules, the regular activities, the special activities and the working relations within the school and between the school and community. The principles are related to the scope of community relations, to the degree of lay participation in educational planning, to interpretation of the school program and to the role of the school in the community.[8]

Construction of the Instrument

The instrument used for checking and observing the operation of these generalizations or principles, was developed within the framework of the five categories described. To provide clarity and logical organization and to facilitate responses from the schools the instrument was assembled in five sections. A brief description of the

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[6] James Tippett, Schools for a Growing Democracy, p. 59.

[7] Olsen, E. G., School and Community, New York: Prentice-Hall, 1945. Ch. 18.

[8] L. V. Koos, J. R. Hughes, P. W. Hutson, and W. C. Reavis, Administering the Secondary School, pp. 632-660.

category was used to introduce each respective section.

The survey form contains 192 items: there are nineteen items under Evaluation, fifty-four items under Basic Principles, seventy-four items under Operating Practices, eight items under Teaching Techniques, and thirty-seven items under Organization. To avoid duplication, and in the interest of more concise presentation, the revised instrument is set forth in Appendix B. A complete tabulation of the results of the survey in the schools is also incorporated into the survey form as it is set forth in Appendix B. This seems a more satisfactory and more logical arrangement rather than to present this long instrument of twenty-six pages as a part of this chapter.

In the interest of objectivity, the generalizations followed closely the original wordings found in the literature.

These items were presented in the survey form as generalizations, principles, practices, methods and techniques that possibly operated in the schools making use of resources in the teaching-learning process. They were to be answered by the criterion as to whether they did operate in the specific school under consideration. The answers were to be registered in three categories: yes, no, or in part, and could be indicated by a check mark.

In most cases, the items were stated in general terms. This meant that the respondent was to relate the item to his own school. However, there were many specific items where the application was more obvious. In the former case, a basic principle, a philosophy,

might be involved, and this would require more serious reflection. In the latter case, however, no specific philosophy was necessarily involved; it was an example of a way of proceeding which could be answered very quickly.

Approaching Teachers,
Supervisors and Administrators

The survey form was submitted to one hundred teachers and administrators in the River Rouge Public Schools, in River Rouge, Michigan, which included three elementary schools and one high school. Correspondence over a considerable period prepared the way for presentation of the survey form. An outline of the study and its objectives were included in the correspondence. Agreement was reached that the schools would cooperate in the project, and general plans for the introduction of the instrument to the staff members were agreed upon. The author went to River Touge and spent one week there meeting teachers in groups and individually. During these meetings he explained the purpose of the study, the reasons for the survey form and the purported value of the survey form. Eighty-eight teachers and administrators filled out the forms.

More items were added to the survey form as a result of suggestions from River Rouge and from additional reading in the field. At this point the possibilities for further generalizations seemed to be exhausted. The limit was reached for all practical purposes.

A revised survey form containing 253 items (Appendix B)

was assembled. The revised form was arranged so that all items submitted in River Rouge also were submitted to the schools in the five Southern states in exact order to permit a direct analysis and comparison. In tabulating the results, forms were recorded in such order that they could be identified (Appendix B).

The revised survey form was submitted to a group of selected teachers and administrators of schools in North Carolina, Tennessee, Georgia, South Carolina and Florida. The schools included were:

Grimesland High School, Pitt County, North Carolina.
Laboratory High School, Georgia State Teachers College Statesboro, Georgia.
Parker District Schools, Greenville, South Carolina.
Laboratory Training School, East Tennessee State College, Johnson City, Tennessee.
Alachua High School, Alachua, Florida.
Osceola County Schools, Osceola County, Florida.
Largo High School, Largo, Florida.
St. Petersburh High School, St. Petersburg, Florida.
Bellair Elementary School, Pinellas County, Florida.
Clearwater High School, Clearwater, Florida.

Types of Schools in the Study

River Rouge, Michigan, represents a city school system in a highly industrialized urban setting. It is one of the orbits in the galaxy of industrialization that comprises metropolitan Detroit.

With the exception of the Parker District the schools included in the Southern states are not located in industrial centers. In most cases they are rural or are located in small urban centers. However, two of the schools are located in moderate-sized cities in Florida. One is a typical community school of the type described by Knox McCharen. Four of the schools located in the five Southern states

have previously received national recognition. The first school has been written up several times as being outstanding in the educational excursion, and for pioneering in curriculum reconstruction. The second school has been described as being a fine example of community coordination. The third school has received recognition as a community school, while the fourthhas been recognized for its outstanding work in utilizing the local environment in the teaching-learning process. There will be a more specific identification of these schools in the sixth chapter.

These representative schools in six states, and in a variety of communities, provide a balance to the study. They tend to make the results from the survey a fairly representative sampling of public education in America.

Summary

The central problem of the study came to a focus in this chapter. Generalizations on the utilization of resources in the teaching-learning process were identified.

Items were recorded, analyzed and classified on file cards. They were re-classified until five logical categories emerged. Then they were assembled in their proper categories.

An instrument was constructed in the nature of a survey form for the purpose of studying the application of generalizations on resource utilization. It was arranged in five categories, and originally contained a total of 192 items. It was later revised to include 253 items (Appendix B).

Representative schools in six states were selected for the study. These schools were invited to use the instrument. Through the use of the survey form, practicing educators were to corroborate or identify the items selected as generalizations for the utilization of resources in the teaching-learning process.

CHAPTER V

ANALYSIS OF THE LIST OF GENERALIZATIONS BY PERSONNEL OF RIVER ROUGE, MICHIGAN

River Rouge, Michigan, was selected for this study because it represented a school system in a highly industrialized urban community. The system includes three elementary schools, a junior-senior high school, the veterans institute, and a division of adult-education. Its achievements in teacher education and in adult education have been described in national educational journals. It is recognized as one of the outstanding school systems in Michigan. River Rouge has developed numerous projects where community resources have been made an integral part of the teaching-learning process. It is a suitable place to conduct this study because it is a dynamic school community where it could reasonably be expected that its teachers and administrators should be qualified to identify the abstract statements of principles and procedures for resource utilization taken from the literature and incorporated into the tentative instrument (Appendix B).

This chapter will illustrate the utilization of resources in the teaching-learning process in an active school system. A brief history of the River Rouge Action Research Project will be followed by a description of such developments as the Guidance Council, teacher education projects, curriculum reconstruction, School-Community Day, the Job Placement Service, Career Week, Business, Labor and Education Day, the camping program, the driver-training program, the Youth Bureau and the Health Council.

This will compose the first section.

In the second section, the results of the survey conducted in River Rouge by the use of the tentative instrument will be discussed. This will be in the form of a summary report on the five categories of principles of resource utilization into which the tentative instrument was divided.

History

While it is difficult to determine the exact date when the River Rouge Schools, River Rouge, Michigan, first began utilizing resources in the teaching-learning process, the year 1939 seems important. In 1939 the first driver-training program in Michigan public schools was started in River Rouge. This was made possible through the American Automobile Association which provided special training, instructional materials, and special equipment, and worked out arrangements by which a dual-control car was furnished to the school.[1]

In 1946 Clifford Erickson of Michigan State College was brought into River Rouge to work with the system-wide guidance council. It was hoped that with Clifford Erickson as consultant a comprehensive guidance and counseling program involving the three elementary schools, the junior high school, and the senior high school would be developed. It was expected that an intensive in-service training program in guidance and counseling would result. However, the majority of the teachers were not ready to support the over-all program and those who participated in the project were

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[1]Paul Randall, Instructor and Organizer. Personal inverview, March 10, 1952.

dissatisfied. The project was discontinued after one year.

During the years 1945 to 1947 an attempt was made to involve all teachers in a system-wide teacher education program. Charles Slutz, educational consultant, sponsored by the Detroit Young Men's Christian Association, visited River Rouge each month. The procedure was for Mr. Slutz to meet with small groups of teachers upon his arrival. Then he would lecture to the entire faculty. Following the lecture, he would meet again with small groups to discuss the key points in his lecture or special problems of the teachers. Topics discussed included moral and spiritual values, discipline, administrative-faculty relations, teacher morale, articulation between elementary, junior high, and senior high, and teachers' organizations.

This attempt at in-service education was not completely successful. The teachers felt that it was dominated by Mr. Slutz. While some teachers were interested and felt it was beneficial, the majority were passive participants. It failed to create a feeling of unity, and failed to involve the majority in a stimulating, purposeful, in-service training program.

In May, 1947, River Rouge tapped a resource which it has continued to utilize. As stated before, the Guidance Council had used a consultant in 1946, with inconclusive results. Several faculty members, including the high school counselor and the director of testing, hoped to revive the counseling program. Theyconsidered the testing, the counseling, and the student personnel records inadequate. However, they were handicapped by a lack of funds and resources. In addition, many faculty members were not

convinced of the need for, and the value of, a comprehensive guidance program. At this critical point, it was discovered that the Veterans' Employment Center of the Detroit Branch, United States Employment Service, might be persuaded to render technical assistance to River Rouge.

The proper contacts were made. Negotiations between River Rouge and this federal agency were successful and a valuable service was provided to River Rouge. The outcomes of this successful example of resource utilization will be discussed later.

During the period, 1947-1948, a tenure plan was adopted. This stipulated that each staff member must accumulate six hours of college credit every five years. It also stipulated that the Board of Education would subsidize such work where it was focused directly on the improvement of the River Rouge Schools. Following the adoption of the tenure plan, the system joined the Michigan College Agreement Association, and these two events had a profound effect upon the River Rouge Schools.

In May, 1948, the River Rouge High School joined the Michigan College Agreement Association, which was a cooperative arrangement between Michigan colleges and high schools concerning admission of high school graduates to college. A clause in the agreement reads as follows:

> High schools seeking to come under the College Agreement are required to assume responsibility for initiating and conducting such procedures as the following:
>
> a. Develop a program involving the building of an adequate personal file for each student including testing data of various kinds, anecdotal records, personality inventories, achievement samples, and so on. The high school staff would assume responsibility for developing a summary of these personal data for submission to college.
>
> b. Undertake a basic curriculum study and evaluation of

the purposes and program of the secondary school.

c. Provide for a continuous follow-up study of former pupils.

d. Maintain a continuous program of information and orientation throughout the high school course regarding the nature and requirements of certain occupations and specialized college courses, and devote during the senior year special emphasis to the occupation or college of the pupil's choice.[2]

These conditions implied an expansion of guidance services, stressing testing, occupational information, and a follow-up study. They also implied a careful examination of the existing curriculum. In a large sense, the action of River Rouge in joining the Michigan College Agreement Association was a powerful influence in stimulating the guidance program and collaborative curriculum study. Both of these developments were to make significant contributions to the movement for utilization of resources in the teaching-learning process in River Rouge.

This brief summary is intended to provide a background against which selected projects will be described to illustrate how River Rouge utilized resources in the teaching-learning process.

Work of the Guidance Council

The work of the Guidance Council and its relations with the Michigan State Employment Service will be described for the reason that this represents an interesting project in the utilization of resources.

The first noteworthy attempt in tapping resources occurred in 1945-1946 when Clifford Erickson was brought in as a consultant. Out of

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[2]"Memorandum from the Department of Public Instruction to the Principals of All University Accredited High Schools," April 10, 1947, Lansing, Michigan (mimeographed).

this experience aims and objectives of the guidance program were determined. Also, the requirements of a good guidance program were outlined. The existing guidance program was analyzed and a revised Guidance Council was organized into six standing committees.

During the following year, 1946-1947, the Guidance Council devoted its efforts to encouraging and strengthening the work of the standing committees. Its most noteworthy accomplishment was tapping a rich resource, the Michigan State Employment Service. As mentioned earlier, the Veterans' Employment Center of the State Employment Service provided services to River Rouge in 1947. At that time it brought a staff of fourteen counselors to River Rouge. The purpose of this project was to help seniors and veterans make choices of life-time occupations, and to help 9A's[3] decide which curriculum they would follow in senior high school. The project is thus summarized by the Employment Service.

> The major institutional counseling project during the period was at River Rouge High School, May 20, when 197 students, including eighty-eight seniors (graduating in June), and 109 freshmen (interested in making their course elections for the fall term), were counseled by fourteen staff members. Seniors were registered by the Wyandotte Michigan State Employment Service Local Office and their 511's[4] were used in conjunction with the Interest Inventory Check list to determine the occupational discussion groups in which the students would participate. Two seventy-five minute counseling periods were allowed, giving each student participation in discussion of his two

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[3]In this study, 9A refers to the students who are in the second semester of the ninth grade. Similarly, the first semester students in the ninth grade would be referred to as 9B's. Likewise, for students in each of the high school grades.

[4]Special registration form used by the Employment Service.

> top fields of interest. The number in the groups ranged from two to fifty, the latter being the clerical field and containing only girls.
>
> In this project, no school records were used, with the result that screening tools included only the 511 and Inventory Check List. This made it a difficult problem for the counselor, as group discussion leader, to hold the attention of not only the persons who lost interest after learning their limitations for entry into the field, but also those who, had they been given aptitude tests, or had their school records been available, most likely would not have been allowed to participate in the group.[5]

Four days were taken out of the regular school schedule and devoted to this project. The auditorium was made available for general assemblies, classrooms were made available for occupational group meetings and individual counseling. As stated in the report of the Employment Service, the staff of the Veterans Employment Center, Detroit, and the local office in Wyandotte provided their services. Students of the high school acted as messengers, and fifteen faculty members participated. Before the Employment Service personnel started their work, the manager of the Veterans Employment Center met with the entire faculty, described the proposed activities and discussed principles and techniques of counseling.

The following procedures were used in counseling the students in River Rouge High School:

1. Registration of students by the employment service counselor on their special registration form. At the time of registration students indicated three choices of occupational

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[5]Managers Report of Veterans Center Activities, Veterans Employment Center, Michigan State Employment Service, Detroit, May, 1947.

interests.

2. Information on vocational opportunities in the Detroit area was presented through a delineascope with narrative provided by Employment Service personnel.

3. After opportunity for questions and discussions, and clarification pertinent to occupations, the students filled out the Interest Inventory Check List. Employment Service personnel and school counselors assisted students in listing their principal fields of interest.

4. The Employment Service personnel took the Interest Inventory forms back to their office for scoring purposes. They correlated the interest patterns indicated with results of analysis of the 511 cards. Then they listed students by similar occupational fields in groups.

5. The school assigned students to designated rooms in which detailed information on the occupational field was presented by the Employment Service counselor. Students were assigned to three occupational fields covering their first three choices.

6. Teachers in social science, English, commercial and industrial classes encouraged the writing of themes on occupations by the students involved. This was done in the interval between filling out the Interest Inventory form and the return of Employment Service personnel for counseling.

7. High school counselors were present in the occupational groups to observe counseling techniques and to assist the Employment

Service counselor during the question and answer portion of the periods. Their familiarity with the backgrounds, skills, and accomplishments of the students was important to the counseling process.

8. Students who desired additional testing or counseling could arrange appointments with the Employment Service.

This resource, the Employment Service, continues to be active in River Rouge. It seems appropriate to continue the discussion of activities stemming from this source, including developments closely related to it.

Membership in the Michigan College Agreement Association compelled River Rouge to organize a definite program which would expand the counseling program, stressing testing, occupational information, personal file for each student, follow-up study, and evaluation of the curriculum. In consideration of this, River Rouge negotiated for further services from the counseling and testing staff of the Michigan State Employment Service. As a result, the Employment Service returned to River Rouge in May, 1948.

Counseling and testing service was provided to the senior class only. All seniors were given the General Aptitude Test Battery. The counseling staff of the high school was briefed on the structure, scope, purpose, interpretation and administration of the General Aptitude Test Battery. They observed all stages of the testing activities. Taking the test was voluntary on the part of the seniors. The entire class of ninety students participated.

After the General Aptitude Test Battery was scored, applicants classified, and results interpreted according to aptitude and ability, the

Michigan State Employment Service staff returned to River Rouge High School. Each senior was interviewed personally—a half hour being scheduled for the interview. Prior to each interview, the Employment Service counselor carefully examined the CA Form-39[6] of the student he was about to interview. The counselor considered the scores made on the California Mental Maturity Test, Detroit General Aptitude Test, and the Kuder Interest Inventory Test. He made mental notes of the scholastic record and anecdotal remarks. He evaluated the data obtained from the General Aptitude Test Battery into the total picture.

On the basis of this information the Employment Service counselor indicated the strongest occupational fields for each student and pointed out his abilities and aptitudes. These occupational fields were discussed and additional information was provided. Arrangements were made for additional counseling or job placement interviews by the Employment Service.

In November, 1949, a smaller group of Employment Service counselors returned to work with the senior class. This was primarily a counseling situation. The Employment Service counselors found that in 75 per cent of the cases the information contained in the CA-39 form was adequate for complete occupational counseling. The General Aptitude Test Battery was administered at the Employment Service offices for 25 per cent of the seniors. These were cases where students were torn between two choices or lacked significant data as a basis for occupational choice.

One of the outcomes of this joint experience was a request from

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[6]Standard form adopted in Michigan for student's personal record.

the River Rouge High School counselors for some practical training in the methods and techniques of counseling used by the Employment Service. Acting upon this request, a special two-day workshop was arranged by the Employment Service for six local high schools. Five counselors from River Rouge attended the workshop. This established a new service in Michigan for high school counselors. It has been mentioned in the third chapter that the major subject of the conference was coordination of vocational guidance and employment counseling activities. Special topics treated included a description of the vocational guidance and employment counseling provided by the Employment Service, conducting the counseling interview, obtaining, weighing and recording counseling information, description of the General Aptitude Test Battery and its use in the counseling situation, imparting information to counselors, determining suitable occupational outlets and areas of coordination and cooperation between schools and the Employment Service.

In May, 1950, ninety-two seniors were counseled by the Employment Service. There was evidence of significant progress in the River Rouge counseling program. The personal data on the form CA-39 was sufficient for satisfactory vocational counseling in all but eight cases. In the majority of cases the seniors had received adequate counseling and had made wise occupational choices before their interviews with Employment Service personnel.

The Employment Service counselors returned to counsel seniors in November, 1950, in June, 1951, and in March, 1952. They noted steady improvement in the counseling program, and found that in an increasing

number of cases satisfactory testing, recording of data, and occupational counseling had been provided for the students. Several developments had taken place to enrich the entire counseling program and to evaluate and reorganize the curriculum. The Guidance Council was an active influence in such developments as curriculum reconstruction, job placement service, Career Week, and Business, Industry, Labor Day, which will be discussed separately. In all of these there are examples of resource utilization in the teaching-learning process.

Teacher Education Projects

Teacher education has been, and continues to be, an important factor in the development of the program in River Rouge and it is closely related to the utilization of resources in the teaching-learning process. Early experiments under Clifford Erickson and Charles Sluts have been described. Attention will now be focused on the Status Leadership Study which took place during the 1948-1949 school year.

> For several years the River Rouge Public School System has been attempting to extend the application of democratic concepts at several organizational levels so that collaborative activity might permeate such areas as (1) administrative relationships, (2) school-community relationships, (3) administrator-teaching staff relationships, and (4) teacher-pupil relationships. This program of gradual reconstruction has been facilitated by the creation of several deliberative bodies and the partial subsidization of study activities in which administrator-teacher and teacher teams participated. They include:
>
> 1. The Administrative Staff, consisting of the superintendent and his building principals usually meets weekly for about two hours. Its focus is general policy formation and coordination.
>
> 2. The Advisory Council, consisting of the superintendent and elected building representatives ordinarily meets weekly for about two hours. The task of this group is to bring to the attention of the superintendent matters relating to

the improvement of education in River Rouge.

3. Building Steering Committees in certain schools, depending upon the size of the faculty, meet about twice monthly to confer with building principals regarding problems affecting the building program.

4. An Invitational Citizens' Conference on Education was held in the spring of the school year 1948-1949. Its focus was the general problem of bettering the schools and school-community relationships. This conference has become an annual event with changing community and school membership.

5. Intensive teacher study-committees are active in certain schools. Their work is directed toward improving the program of the particular school.

6. Administrator-teacher and teacher teams attend the three- and six-day curriculum conferences sponsored by the Michigan Curriculum Planning Committee.

These deliberative groups and the partial subsidization of administrator-teacher and teacher team study activities have tended to cement the slow, stepwise development of personally friendly and essentially non-directive relationships among the administration, school staff, community and youth of the school system. They must be considered significantly favorable factors in the planning of the Status Leadership Study Group described here.[7]

Reasons for partial failure of previous projects in teacher education were analyzed. It was felt that the consultants used previously and administrators had insisted on certain specific changes being made. They wanted their ideas to be accepted and followed. This limited their effectiveness and made the faculty dependent upon them. It was believed that the building administration, the teaching staff, community, and youth had been left out of the change-inducing process. Change imposed upon these groups resulted in increased resistance to change and in their being worked on or at, rather than with. Group life is changed more effectively "by doing things with rather than to people."

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[7]River Rouge Status Leadership Study Group, River Rouge, Michigan, 1949, p. 1.

Another major obstacle was the lack of sufficient intermediate leadership in each school. Recognizing that curriculum reconstruction was not superimposed by the superintendent or by an expert consultant, it was decided that a new method was needed. Collaborative curriculum study, involving many teachers, was proposed. But this approach takes time, organization, process, places to work, and a different kind of leadership. The training and experience of most teachers in a highly stratified, compartmentalized school organization little fits many of them for the leadership role required for group study at the school program level. To the extent that this intermediate leadership is lacking, collaborative curriculum study bogs down.

The factor of intermediate leadership played a decisive role in the formation of the final plan. It was felt that other factors might be overcome if appropriate intermediate leadership was developed and good relationships among this group were cemented. Accordingly, the plan was formulated by the superintendent and his administrative staff to invite persons having status leadership responsibility to join them in a two hour a week study group throughout the school year, 1948-1949.

A consultant who was skilled in group process was secured from Wayne University. The River Rouge Board of Education, in line with the policy of the recently adopted teacher tenure plan, agreed to subsidize the cost of the project.

The group of twenty-one status leaders, seeking to develop themselves for roles as intermediate leaders in a collaborative group process program of curriculum reconstruction, divided into two sub-groups. These

groups were: (1) Relationship Between Building Administrators, and (2) Relationship Between District or Building Administrators and Community. The three major problems they worked on during the year were: (1) What conditions get in the way of our doing better work to improve the instructional program? (2) What are the causes of these conditions? and (3) What can or should be done about them?

A committee of the status leaders published an account of their experiences in this action research project. While there were many interesting developments, it seems best to present a brief summary of their work. It should be stated that the venture was considered to be successful and that the major objective of training intermediate leadership in the group process was realized. Persons from other schools who had been successful in leading teacher groups using the democratic process were brought in as resources.

Following is a summary of conditions which facilitated the group process:

> Many conditions that helped can be attributed to the individual's attitudes toward the projects. A conviction developed among members that each participant must have the right to "speak his mind" without fear of censure or reproach. Members tended gradually to accept each other with mutual respect. Some facilitated the work by their sincerity and honesty. Others showed patience long after it seemed reasonable. Many helped by being interested in sharing common problems on a peer basis. The desire to trade ideas was beneficial to frequently frayed nerves. The past experience of some members was considered a positive factor.
>
> The social coffee period preceding each weekly meeting seemed to relax the participants. Some members mentioned the composition of the group.* Another important factor

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*They were greatly impressed by the fact that the superintendents and principals were in the group as "peers" and not as "superiors."

> was the development of a point of view concerning the group; its responsibilities and meaning to River Rouge. There developed an understanding of what a group ought to be. A final factor was that groups were organised on a voluntary basis with interest being the guide.
>
> It was found that the process necessitated an interdependence in the thinking of all members. The cooperatively developed plan of work and the clarification of blocks helped. The semi-monthly logs provided a check on progress. The bi-semester summaries caused members to see the year's work in perspective. The consultant's work in helping members see relationships within the projects served to sharpen the focus of group effort. Rotation of chairmen and recorders helped each to feel personal responsibility for progress.
>
> Library resources, bibliographies and mimeographed reference materials stimulated group thinking. The fact that the process was new to some motivated their interest.[8]

The sub-group on relations between school and community devoted considerable time to current projects which utilized community resources in the teaching-learning process. These projects included an advisory council to the adult education program, school-industry day, follow-up study of former students, career week, Parent-Teacher Association, community concert program, community recreation program, and participation of school people in community groups.

Considerable difficulty was encountered in grasping the concept of the role of the leader in group process. There were times when much criticism was directed at the consultant. When progress was slow and morale low, the leader was obliged to be the temporary target of criticism. This state of affairs is clarified when the basic ideas of democratic participation are mutually accepted, experienced and evaluated. The role of the leader must be understood by all group members. In this

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[8] River Rouge Status Leadership Study Group, op cit, p. 13.

regard the log material revealed varied attitudes. Techniques of the leader were accepted as sources of inspiration and success. Requests for more "direction and leadership" and "intervention by the leader" reflected a reluctance to accept personal responsibility for the success or failure of the projects. Helplessness in the face of opportunities for self-reliance and leadership was evident in such log comments as "desire more summaries to direct our thinking," "we work better when you are here," and "leadership is poor; we're getting nowhere." Pointing hither and yon for the convenient scapegoat is the stereotype that bogs down human relations.

At the close of the year there was evidence of greater tolerance toward the slowness of the democratic process. For example, one person recognized that great benefit had resulted from the project and stated that he had used some of the new techniques in his classes. Another who thought in April that the project was lost believed in June that it was "really shaping up." A sober note was the expression that the study project had been a worthwhile though grueling experience.

Nineteen of the twenty-one status leaders desired to continue. They formed the nucleus of a system-wide curriculum study group which included seventy-six teachers and administrators. This large group worked together through the 1949-1950 school year.

Local School Curriculum Study

Much interest had been aroused by the Status Leadership Study and many teachers were interested in joining the system-wide curriculum study project. The River Rouge Board of Education agreed to bear the expense

of this undertaking. Graduate credit was available just as it had been in the Status Leadership Study Group. Charles L. Boye continued to serve as consultant. Maud Price, also of Wayne University, served as second consultant. The teachers were free to choose their own problems. Actually, about fifty problems were proposed which finally were classified into seven major areas. Consequently, seven standing committees were formed. Teachers were free to join any committee. The seven committees were: Pupil Adjustment, Group Reading, Social Competencies, School Community Relations, Evaluation of Elementary Problems, Evaluation of Secondary Programs, and Health Programs.

Certain factors seem worthy of consideration. These included the plan for maintaining liaison with teachers who had decided not to join, the organization of a coordinating group, the procedures to be followed by each committee, and the over-all success of the project.

Great concern was expressed for those teachers who preferred not to join the larger group. Their interest and participation was needed to make the system-wide curriculum study and curriculum revision a successful venture. The situation was helped by the fact that practically every teacher in the system was involved in some type of teacher education project. In one school the total faculty was involved in a curriculum improvement program; in another school the faculty was involved in parent conferences; and most of the other teachers were active in standing committees in their own schools. Consequently, the major problem was to keep non-members informed of progress, receive their ideas and comments, and insure that they would understand and accept the new developments.

Each principal agreed to keep his staff informed of progress in the Curriculum Study Group, and non-members were invited to visit the total group meetings and committee meetings. No major decisions calling for change of policy were made until the non-members expressed themselves on each proposal. The Coordinating Group also helped provide liaison.

The Coordinating Group consisted of representatives from each of the seven committees, representatives from each of the five schools, principals and superintendent, and the two consultants. The building representatives were charged with the responsibility of conveying to the Coordinating Group the views of their school faculty and to report back to their faculty the activities of the Curriculum Study Group. The main job of the members of the Coordinating Group was to serve as a source of information and as a means of coordination among all staff members. Each of the seven committees would keep the entire system informed regarding its activities, and in turn would know what other committees were doing through the Coordinating Group.

Each committee was to follow action-research techniques in pursuing its work. Any resources that might facilitate and enrich the projects were to be used. During the course of the year a variety of resources was tapped. Out of all this came significant improvements in the teaching-learning process.

The instructions regarding procedures to be used are presented here:

1. Organize the study group (committee) for rotation of the jobs of chairman and recorder.

2. Define problem(s) to be studied using all pairs of eyes in the group; avoid language which might offend non-participants, including pupils and parents.
3. List steps to be taken by group to define better solution(s) for problem(s) than are now operative in schools represented in the group:
   a. Evaluate—tentatively decide what is good and what is undesirable in regard to present ways of dealing with the problem(s) in River Rouge.
   b. Define the causal factors which likely make the problem what it presently is in River Rouge.
   c. Check schools in River Rouge and outside River Rouge to see what they are doing in regard to the problem(s). This might be done in connection with "3a."
   d. Look into some good references on the problem(s); what modifications in individual and group thinking are suggested?
   e. "Tailor-make" new ways of dealing with the problem(s); these inventions need to fit the individual school; what is good in one is bad in another.
   f. Carry out the "tailor-made" new ways to see how they work.
   g. Evaluate—did it (they) work? Re-define problem(s) and start over again from "scratch." See Item 2.
4. Check carefully and periodically (starting with Item 2) with building administrators, non-participant teachers, parents

and pupils identified with the schools represented in the study group to see what changes might wisely be made in regard to:

a. Definition of the problem(s)

b. Study process (see Item 3)

c. Action conclusions being reached

d. Difficulties being encountered

5. As soon as study group has gotten "1," "2," "3," and "4" under control as a "plan," publish a two-, three-, or four-page ditto showing what the group proposes to do. Make enough copies for seventy-five people. Show items "1-4," inclusive, as they fit your group.

6. Start carrying out your "plan" as a group and check periodically to see how the group and others feel about its work? See Item 4.

What were the outcomes of the Curriculum Study Group? It generated a high degree of interest in the entire program. Teachers were impressed by the fact that they could sit in committees with their superintendent, their principal, department head, and speak freely and fully; that this was a peer situation. Several groups represented a cross section of the entire system. Elementary, secondary, and adult education staff came to see the problems and needs, the work, the programs of each other. They acquired new understandings, tolerance, and a clearer concept of the need for articulation and integration. They gained experience and confidence

in the group process. They came to believe in collaborative curriculum study and reconstruction. They were able to discover new techniques, new ideas, new data, to work out solutions, and to work with and utilize community resources, all of which benefited their pupils and improved the teaching-learning process.

One committee reported its members feeling that the project resulted in personal growth and furnished inspiration for working out devices to gain a better understanding of their boys and girls and their social patterns in home, school, and community. Another committee reported that the year's work had directly affected their teaching outlook. Some of the changes in the teaching-learning process centered around talking over goals with students and making their ideas part of the actions taken. Students were given a chance to feel like individuals rather than one of a mass of antagonists against arbitrary rule. Also mentioned was a diversity of work to allow for individual differences, maturation level, and, therefore, a wider probability of some success in some phase of work for every student. Some teachers reported placing greater emphasis on individual and group counseling than had previously been the case. Favorable comment and better understanding was expressed concerning the multiple period (core) classes. Teachers recommended finding ways to have pupils spend more than one period with at least one teacher during the day. It was felt that each teacher, in striving to improve, and to democratise his teaching and try new techniques, must take or develop methods in which he feels secure or willing to try.

Of especial interest to this study were specific references to

the utilization of resources in the teaching-learning process. In its final report, the committee on School-Community Relations recommended the following activities: informing the public, participation of the public, enriching the school program through services of laymen, using the community as an extension of the school plant in the learning process, involving services of community agencies in the learning situation, leadership by the school in the changing culture of the community, and coordination of the home with the school.

Evidence of leadership in River Rouge and recognition of its program is attested to by the fact that its staff for years has served on important state-wide and regional committees. Membership in these committees in turn has greatly strengthened the teacher education projects in River Rouge. In addition, teachers are encouraged to attend regional, state, and national conferences, being released from teaching duties for this purpose.

The following report issued by the Superintendent's office, March, 1952, indicates the current status of activities of staff on state and regional committees:

> Several of our employees have been appointed to membership on state and regional committees. A partial list follows:
>
> Roy Alexander--State Committee for Citizenship Education
>
> Cecil Roberts--State Holding Power Study Committee
>
> Al Loving--State Committee for Home and Family Life Education
>
> Delmo Della-Dora--Chairman, General Education Committee, Metropolitan Detroit Bureau of Cooperative School Studies
>
> I am serving at present on the Michigan Commission on Educational Policies and the Home and Family Life

Education Committee.*

Work on these committees is one of the most stimulating and educational experiences an educator can have. People in the State Department, the colleges of education, and other school systems have frequently commented upon the foresight and intelligence of the River Rouge Board of Education for the encouragement given their faculty to take advantage of these opportunities. Our school program is bound to be better as a result of this participation.[9]

Curriculum Reconstruction

The early attempts at teacher education and curriculum reconstruction, the Status Leadership Study, and the Local School Curriculum Study have all been described. It seems appropriate at this point to mention some of the specific steps achieved in curriculum reconstruction in River Rouge. This movement proceeded on the broken front approach and continues to follow this approach. The annual report of the Guidance Council at the conclusion of the 1947-1948 school year recommended certain revisions in the curriculum with the support of administration and the majority of teachers.

The following developments have taken place:

All 7B students are enrolled in a three hour core class, based on English and social science. All 7A and 8B students are enrolled in a two-hour core class based on English and social science. The 8A group has a one-hour class called Social Living. The 9B group is enrolled in a two-hour core class based on English and social science. A special class called Home Planning is provided for 12B and 12A students. The block

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*Refers to Carroll Munshow, Superintendent.

[9]Superintendent's Report, River Rouge, Michigan, March, 1952 (mimeographed).

period classes are referred to as 7B Unified, or 8B Unified, and are not labeled as "core" classes. Among the major objectives of the revised curriculum are providing a more realistic approach to the social development of youth, life adjustment education, study of occupations, orientation to junior high school and to senior high school, and a more adequate testing program; compiling personal data of students, a more flexible program being centered on the child and community, rather than subject matter centered, and the development of democratic procedures and group skills in the classroom. The superintendent considers health--physical and mental--and communication skills and cooperative skills as the main objectives of the core program in River Rouge.

Individual and group counseling on personal problems and social adjustment, the dissemination of occupational information and vocational counseling are woven into class work at appropriate times.

In the 8A Social Living class, attitudes, manners, boy-girl relations, health, personal grooming, dating, and growing up in a democracy are stressed. The attitudes to which attention is given include attitudes towards the home, towards siblings, towards the community, and towards the school. Attitudes toward foreign lands are also woven into the fabric of the class. Considerable use is made of resources. Human resources, such as policemen, firemen, doctors, dentists, nurses, business people, and skilled craftsmen, are brought into class. Field trips are made to places like Greenfield Village, Detroit Museum of Art, and Detroit newspaper plants. Letters are written to school youth in Japan, Switzerland, Germany, and France, and much is learned of foreign lands, and new attitudes

developed in this way.

In the 9B class all students set up their four-year plan for high school. This determines tentatively the high school curriculum they will follow. They indicate three vocational choices of major interest. The homeroom teacher, the students, the faculty counselor, and parents are involved. They, with the student, reach basic agreement on his proposed four-year plan and major occupational choices. A background for this has been laid in the revised seventh and eighth grade curriculum. Special programs such as Career Week and Business Education Labor Day have also contributed to the process of providing information and ideas to help the 9B student make choices in his four-year plan.

In the twelfth grade, Home Planning is offered to 12B and 12A students. It is centered on such subjects as engagement, marriage, children, the parental family, the home, religion, social relations, and practical details such as insurance, banking, taxes, and consumer education.

In all these life adjustment cooperative classes there is a strong element of teacher-pupil planning. Community resources are utilized to a considerable extent to vitalize and make more functional the teaching-learning process.

School-Community Day

River Rouge believes that its lay citizens have much to contribute to the educational program. It believes that its parents and lay people should be fully informed regarding the teaching-learning process that is being administered by River Rouge schools. It believes that lay persons should be invited to analyze, criticize and correlate various items in the

school program. Also, that lay people should share in planning ways to improve the educational program, in suggesting what might be added to and what might be eliminated from the school program is part of the plan. Wherever possible, it seeks to draw community resources into the learning situation. An excellent device to bring all this to fruition seemed to be a School-Community Day.

Three School-Community Days have been held in River Rouge. Two were held in 1949 and one in 1951. Approximately 150 persons participated in the first two and one hundred in the 1951 event. The first School-Community Day focused attention on the general problem of improving the school, on the matter of providing services desired by students, parents and the lay public and developing meaningful school and community relationships.

The second School-Community Day concentrated on the modern concept of a school. This was for the purpose of showing the lay public how American schools have changed during the past thirty years, and to give them a clear picture of all the activities, all the services, all the equipment required to provide even an average educational program today.

The third School-Community Day devoted its attention to the problems of civil defense, which seemed to be a crucial problem in the Detroit metropolitan area, an arsenal of national defense. Outside experts were imported to make keynote speeches and to serve as consultants or resource persons. Lay people were trained for leadership roles as chairmen of committees. School personnel served as recorders in committees. The

pattern of the meetings consisted of the keynote speech, dividing up into discussion groups, re-assembling for group summaries and summary of total proceedings, and filling out evaluation sheets of the entire process. Each group had a lay chairman, faculty recorder, consultant, and student representative.

These meetings stimulated interest of the lay public and brought valuable exchanges of ideas, comments, criticism, and evoked joint planning. However, the work and details involved placed a real burden on the schools. Also, public interest was declining. Out of the last School-Community Day emerged the formation of a smaller group, a lay study group, which met first in April, 1951. This new development gives indications of being a successful venture. At the meeting in April, 1952, discussion was held and general plans were proposed for the creation of a community council. The problem of the relationship between the Community Council and the schools, and how extensive would be the jurisdiction of the Community Council needs to be worked out.

Job Placement Service

The Guidance Council in its annual report in 1946 suggested the creation of a job placement service. Certain individual faculty members were unusually successful in placing students, and a loosely knit placement service was maintained. In 1949 a formal organization with definite procedures, central files, referral cards, and follow-up records was established. All faculty engaged in job placement kept careful records and maintained close communication with the central office. Resources, contacts and job leads were pooled in an organized effort at job placement.

Cooperation has been received from local industry and from the Michigan State Employment Service. River Rouge High School attempts to have every student tentatively enrolled in the college of his choice, or placed in a job before he walks on the stage to receive his diploma. During the school year 1950-1951, the activities that follow were reported. One hundred twelve persons sought assistance in finding jobs; referrals were made to 369 jobs; 283 persons were placed in jobs; sixty-three persons were referred but not hired; seventy-three persons were referred, but no information has been received as to placement.

Seven faculty members carried the burden of finding jobs for River Rouge students. Major types of work secured were as follows: secretarial, stenographic and general office; sales clerks of various types; general laborers and mail clerks. Other jobs included fountain clerks, dental assistant, cashier, mechanic, messenger, paper boy, printing apprentice, stock boy, telephone operator, and truck driver.

Career Week

The idea of a career week was another outgrowth of the work of the Guidance Council. The first career week was held in November, 1948. This, of course, utilized an extensive variety of human and institutional resources. Thirty-eight occupational fields were represented by persons actively engaged in the field. These resource persons were taken on a special tour of the school plant. Students had been canvassed for choice of occupations and the results tabulated by student groups. The thirty-eight fields were those in which greatest interest had been registered. To each occupational group was assigned a teacher, a student chairman, and a student host. Students were permitted to attend three occupational

groups, unless special arrangements were made to visit more.

The latest career week was held in November, 1951. The same procedures were followed. Twenty-five occupational fields were represented. Students attended two of the groups most closely related to their occupational choice. In addition to the occupational groups, two assemblies were held, one for junior high and one for senior high students. At the junior high assembly the General Motors film, "Preview of Progress," was shown. At the senior high assembly two films were shown. "Portrait of a City" was furnished by the Ford Motor Company and a special film portraying important episodes in the life of Horace Mann was shown.

Business-Labor-Education Day

This is an example of an evolving process in school and community relations. It represents an example of resource utilization in teacher education. It also illustrates how the schools may give representatives of industry and labor a graphic picture of schools and school programs. This movement originated in April, 1948, when the Great Lakes Steel Corporation played host to the faculty of River Rough High School. The entire faculty, in small groups, was taken on a complete tour of the major units of the steel mill. Following the tour of the plants, the faculty members were luncheon guests of the Great Lakes Steel Corporation. Key company personnel described the organization, the products, the major activities, and the problems of the corporation. Ample time was provided for questions by teachers, and discussion. Company officials explained what education could do to help, and described the type of training they desired for the high school students they hired. Personnel policies were discussed. Teachers explained some of their problems and difficulties.

In May, 1949, key officials of Great Lakes Steel Corporation were guests of the high school. They were conducted through the school plant. They were luncheon guests of the high school. At the luncheon, key school officials explained phases of the school program that were of greatest interest to the company officials. Questions and discussions followed.

With this background, River Rouge joined other Detroit Down River schools and the Down River Chamber of Commerce in a well coordinated, co-operative venture involving Down River schools, industry and labor. On May 4, 1951, with the Down River Chamber of Commerce assuming major responsibility for coordination, the first business-labor-education day was held. All participants assembled in the Wyandotte, Michigan, high school for the general assembly. They were greeted by the president of the Chamber of Commerce. The chairman reviewed the purposes of Business-Labor-Education Day. The teachers met representatives of business, and were escorted by them to the office, store, or plant they were going to visit. After the tour of the establishment, a top executive explained what was needed from employees and how the schools could help. Types and ranges of jobs, employment procedures, in-service training programs, human relations, and counseling of employees were explained. The stated objectives of the Business-Labor-Education Day were to aid teachers and pupils in understanding the business world and the opportunities it offered; to help provide educational programs which would better prepare youth for the world of work; to aid graduates and drop-outs in securing suitable jobs.

Specific topics discussed, which revolved around relations

between school and industry, pointing out areas of disagreement and areas of agreement, were education and training; human relations; public relations; cooperation between business and education; and "what should schools teach about the American way of life, management, and labor?"

Sixty-four industries and six city school systems were represented. The mayor and council of River Rouge, Ecorse, and Wyandotte, the Grosse Isle Naval Air Station, and the Down River Council of Social Agencies also participated.

On May 24, 1951, thirty-six representatives of industry and labor and civic officials were guests of River Rouge. They were divided into three groups and taken on tours to the high school or to the Ann Visger School, or the Northrup School. Classes in session were visited and the visitors saw the regular school activities in progress. At the luncheon held for the visitors, three major questions formed the basis of discussion. They were: (1) In what ways can schools be helpful to industry? (2) In what ways can industry be helpful to the schools? (3) What are we trying to do for the young people attending the schools who are in the process of growing up?

This program was repeated in 1952. Sixty-three representatives of labor and industry and governmental agencies visited the River Rouge schools. A general assembly was held in the high school. Visitors were divided into small groups to visit elementary or high school classes. Selected teachers demonstrated the progression of learning experiences in such areas as reading, arithmetic, language, commercial arts, and industrial-vocational arts. At the luncheon for visitors, opportunity was

provided for discussion of what was observed with the demonstration teachers.

The Camping Program

As another step to provide a more functional curriculum, a camping program was started in May, 1950. This was repeated in May, 1951. Forty-five seventh graders and forty-eight ninth graders participated in a one-week camping experience in 1950. In 1951, fifty seventh graders and forty-six ninth graders participated. The groups went separately.

Several resources were tapped to make the camping experience possible. The Grosse Pointe Garden Club contributed two hundred fifty dollars. The River Rouge Kiwanis Club contributed one hundred dollars; the River Rouge Child Study group contributed twenty-four dollars. The Kellogg Foundation contributed five dollars for each child who participated. Food was purchased at special rates. The actual cost to each child was eight dollars for one week in camp. The Cedar Lake Camp, at Chelsea, Michigan, maintained by the State Conservation Department, was used.

At camp, of course, all the natural resources of forests, land, soil, and water were used. The State Conservation Department maintained a state fishery at the camp. They provided a conducted tour, which was a study of fish life in lakes and streams, identified varieties of fish and showed what food the fish ate. The Forestry Service showed the relationship between soils and trees. They identified trees, pointed out their use as lumber and explained selected lumbering. They showed examples of soil erosion, and conducted tours on wood lore and wild life. The field administration division explained fire prevention, demonstrated fire

fighting, provided examples of unsafe guns, and careless handling of firearms. The students were taken to the rifle range where everybody fired a gun and was given practical lessons in safety.

Teachers accompanied their students to camp. Once in camp, students organized into work groups under teacher direction. They learned in a natural setting, under practical conditions, how to work in groups.

The teachers and pupils planned in advance for the camping experience and analyzed possible benefits they would derive from the planned experiences. The ninth grade core class integrated the camping experience into units on study of vocations and units on conservation of natural resources. They set up their goals in advance of the field trip to camp.

Evaluation was conducted daily in camp. The day's activities were evaluated to see what new attitudes were developing, what new experiences were recorded, what new information was gained. When the students evaluated their experiences they felt they had three major gains. First was a new concept of their teachers, who turned out to be very good companions, to the surprise of many students. Second, pupils felt they gained a better knowledge, a better understanding of each other; they saw their classmates as entirely different persons, and new leaders emerged in the new environment. Third, all agreed they had gained more knowledge of science. Further evaluation was provided by writing up their experiences.

The camping experience made fine use of a variety of resources in the teaching-learning process. It utilized special techniques in the pre-planning period, setting up goals, and anticipating experiences and

knowledges to be gained.

River Rouge Driver Training Program

This was the first high school driver training program in Michigan, starting originally in 1939 and running for three months only. It was abandoned because of the start of World War II, and the shortage of vehicles resulting therefrom.

The program was revived during the summer of 1947, with high school students receiving instruction during the summer vacation. In September of 1947 the program was continued in the high school as part of the regular curriculum. It was also offered to adults under the Adult Education Division, as a public service. It continues in both the high school and the adult programs.

Several resources are used in the program. The driver training, dual control car is furnished by the local automobile dealer, through arrangements worked out by the American Automobile Association. The local dealer services and maintains the driver training car in good working condition. The American Automobile Association distributes a newsletter to all participating schools which offers valuable suggestions and describes recent innovations and successful techniques. In addition, the American Automobile Association sponsors a training program for secondary teachers to qualify them for driver training instruction. This special training program is provided jointly by the University of Michigan, the State Department of Public Instruction, the Michigan State Safety Commission, and the American Automobile Association. In addition, the American Automobile Association makes available, at special rates, various equipment needed for testing and training, including depth perception test, visual

acuity test, peripheral vision test, reaction time test, and a steadiness test. The American Automobile Association also provides a teaching manual, containing a course outline, which was used in launching the River Rouge program.

The local police force cooperates by sending a special officer over to the school to give all tests, which are administered during the school day. At times, the police force has assisted with the actual instruction.

A criterion for judging the value of this program may consist of a record of the accident rates of the driver training students. These figures are provided by the River Rouge Police Department:

	Accidents Resulting in Property Damage	Accidents Resulting in Personal Injury	Traffic Violation Tickets
1947-1948	0	0	8
1948-1949	1	1	9
1949-1950	0	0	6
1950-1951	3	0	2
1951-1952*	1	0	0

*These figures, as of March 7, 1952, are for a total of 644 students who have been trained during the period 1947-1952.

The driver training program, through utilization of resources as described, has provided a valuable service to River Rouge students in the area of life adjustment. It has helped to demonstrate a meaningful relation between school and the world of work and reality.

River Rouge Youth Bureau

The Director of Special Services in the River Rouge Schools decided one day that something should be done about the youth in the community who

were picked up by the police for minor incidents and brought before a hard-boiled desk sergeant. It seemed that there must be a better way to approach the problem of juvenile delinquency. With the permission of the Superintendent, the Director of Special Services visited eight large Michigan cities to make a state-wide study of established practices affecting school and police cooperation for dealing with juvenile problems. From this study, a special plan was devised for River Rouge. This is an example of the principle that a large measure of ingenuity is required in adapting accepted procedures to a local situation.

The Director and the Chief of Police worked out the details of the Youth Bureau jointly. It was decided to place a special police sergeant in charge of all youth under seventeen who were arrested. The Director of Special Services and the sergeant were to work as a unit in operating the Youth Bureau, which is a very unusual practice in American education. Every youth apprehended, whether in the public or parochial schools, was not arrested, but was brought before the Youth Bureau in the presence of both the Director and the sergeant. At first a special room was provided in the city hall for this purpose, but now the Youth Bureau is housed in a small, separate building erected by the city.

When the youth appears before the Youth Bureau, he must bring a parent or guardian. The Director of Special Services has his school record before him, and the sergeant brings any information available from the police. The offense is considered and discussed, and the best corrective measure is determined. A teacher or school counselor, familiar with the youth, may be called in; a priest or a minister may be called in; a social

worker may take part; and in some cases the Down River Consultation Office may send in a psychologist. Consideration is given to the health, to the mental condition, to the social adjustment or maladjustment of the youth in deciding his case. In extreme cases the counselee is institutionalized. In most cases, the youth is placed under supervision for a variable period. He is called back for conferences and discharged when the situation is clarified; that is, when a satisfactory adjustment has been made. Complete records of all cases are kept.

The Youth Bureau was inaugurated in June, 1947, and continues to operate with fine success. It is a good example of the use of resources in providing a special program for the amelioration of difficult youth problems. Other resources were drawn upon in addition to those already listed. The city recreation program, run jointly by the school and the city, with each contributing 50 per cent of the funds, and which provided extensive leisure time activities, is a factor in combating juvenile delinquency. The three community centers, supported by funds from the United Foundation and local taxes, are other factors in reducing the incidence of juvenile delinquency.

In a unique approach to the problem, the police sergeant assigned to the Youth Bureau was placed in charge of one of the community centers. The sergeant was placed in charge of the community center to let all the youth see him as a "real" fellow, as a friend and counselor, and to let the sergeant have the opportunity to work with "normal" youth, so that he would not get a warped impression of all youth. This same sergeant was used as a resource person in the school, where he talked to pupil

groups on safety, crime, and police problems.

A criterion for judging the effectiveness of the Youth Bureau, which is a fine example of how to use resources to improve a special phase of and make a vital contribution to the school program and make a vital contribution to life adjustment, is a record of the juvenile delinquency cases from 1947 to 1952 reported to the Youth Bureau. The following figures are presented:

Year	Number of Cases Reported
1947-1948	681
1948-1949	522
1949-1950	307
1950-1951	198*
1951-1952 (6 month period)	97

It should be kept in mind that all juvenile delinquencies are reported to the Youth Bureau.

*Two hundred cases annually seems to be the control point, which leveled off in 1951, and gives a strong indication of remaining at about the same figure in 1952. This figure is considerably below the average for other cities of similar size and type. A most encouraging point is that the Youth Bureau resolves 90 per cent of the cases brought before it, referring only 10 per cent of the cases to the Juvenile Court.

The River Rouge Health Council

The Health Council grew out of a realization by school people of the need for lay groups in the community to help on health problems. The first step was stimulated by a State Department of Education official, speaking in River Rouge in 1946 on health. The faculty and Parent Teacher Association of the Northrup School were aroused and determined to do something about the high rate of defective teeth. Two local dentists made a survey in 1946-1947 and found that 98 per cent of the pupils needed dental

care.

In 1949 two things set the stage for the Health Council. A consultant from Wayne University directed an extensive in-service training program in River Rouge, the Local School Curriculum Study, out of which emerged a faculty committee on health. Second, a new nurse, with experience in community relations and with an adequate comprehension of education, joined the staff. The principals of the four city schools, drawing upon their knowledge of the community, suggested a list of interested laymen for the Health Council. In October, 1949, the Health Council was organized. It consisted of two parents representing each school, the four principals, the superintendent, three local dentists, the school nurse, a school board member, the city health nurse, and the assistant principal of the high school.

When the council first met it listed health problems in the community and discovered seven major problems. Seven committees were formed to consider these problems. One of these was the Dental Sub-committee, which will be used to illustrate use of resources.

The Dental Sub-committee, organized in November, 1949, consisted of the school nurse, three parents, and one teacher. The president of the Health Council, a dentist, worked with the committee. One of the first moves of the committee was to invite the local dentists to a luncheon where the problem was discussed and a careful attempt was made to gain their support and approval. The second step was to call in a dental consultant from the Michigan State Health Department, who discussed dental fluoride and other dental programs throughout the country. The third step

was to carry out a pilot dental fluoride program sponsored by the Parent-Teacher Association in the Northrup School. Two local dentists treated eighty-two second grade pupils in their own offices, at a cost of four dollars per student. The Parent-Teacher Association made the appointments, served as receptionists, collected the money, and escorted the pupils to the dental offices, with assistance from the safety patrol. The pilot project was an important device in educating parents to the need for dental care, in making them receptive to the program, in building up an understanding of what the school was trying to accomplish, in showing how to organize the program, and in utilizing resources. Representatives of the Parent-Teacher Association visited parents, explained the need for dental treatment, and the benefits that would result.

As a result of the pilot program and public acceptance of the principle of a dental program, the Dental Committee recommended that the school board set up a budget for a dental fluoride program for all second, fifth, and eighth grade pupils. This included a full-time dental hygienist with a Bachelor of Arts degree, a completely equipped dental office for oral examination and fluoride treatment, and a reception room. The school board approved and the fluoride program got under way during the summer of 1950. The State Department of Health provided a list of supplies needed for fluoride treatment, and the president of the Health Council made contacts and arrangements whereby the equipment was purchased at special rates.

Interesting developments of the dental program are the utilization of parents, who brought the children to and from the schools, and

to the dental clinic. The parents helped in the dental clinic, helped make up the supplies for fluoride treatment, and entertained the children who were waiting their turn. The second development involves the teachers in the second, fifth, and eighth grades. Starting in September, 1951, a special room was set up in the building where the dental clinic is housed and the entire class was brought over as a unit. The teacher conducted the class, presented the planned lesson for the day, while the pupils went into the dental clinic one at a time, then rejoined the class.

There have been four major accomplishments of the Health Council since its inception. The first was the dental program. The second was the coordination of the city health program. The third accomplishment was the creation of a new, much-needed health center. A survey by the Health Council revealed the inadequacy of the existing health center. It was housed in an undesirable location, was too small, and lacked proper equipment, and was not serving all the people. The fourth accomplishment was the development of the Mental Health Committee and the long range program it is developing for students and adults.

The creation of the new Health Center is a fine example of the use of resources for improvement of the school program. The Sub-committee on Coordinating the city health and school health program took up the question, "How can the City Health Department offer more assistance to the school health program?" It was discovered that immunization was a serious problem; for example, less than 33 per cent of entering school children were vaccinated for small pox. It was decided that there was great need for a continuous immunization program organized cooperatively

by the city and school health departments, that there was need for better city health facilities, and that there was a need for a direct tie-up with the City Council.

In tapping resources to get at the problem it was decided to call in the city nurse, and to follow this up by calling in the Mayor and the City Council. It was also decided to explore the possibility of state help, and to invite in local doctors and gain their support.

Several meetings were held with the City Council and the Mayor. Plans were drawn up for the new Health Center. Two local doctors joined the committee and supported it. Three city council members and the Mayor joined the Health Council. A vacant store building was leased and the new Health Center was built on the premises. The city paid for the center. For its share, the school board paid for all secretarial work for the entire Health Council, provided the secretary and secretarial materials.

Services provided to the school include immunization for all school children and tuberculosis checkups. A doctor comes out from the Children's Hospital (Detroit) and administers the shots. The Health Center was opened in September, 1951, and as of March, 1952, there were 850 cases of immunization of school children.

The foregoing description of the River Rouge Action Research Projects was presented to establish justification for its selection in the study. The extent of involvement of the River Rouge faculty in resource utilization in the teaching-learning process has been demonstrated by the foregoing description of activities. It was assumed that the teachers and administrators who had been consciously involved in various aspects

of such a program would be qualified to identify and evaluate the abstract statements of principles and procedures for resource utilization taken from the literature and incorporated into the tentative instrument.

Summary Report of Tentative Instrument

In the fourth chapter the tentative instrument was described. This was applied in River Rouge, where one hundred survey forms were distributed. Of this number eighty-eight were returned. In the following paragraphs a report will be given of the results. The report will be presented in five sections, each section representing one of the five categories around which the tentative instrument was constructed. In presenting this summary, emphasis will be placed upon areas of agreement, areas of disagreement, and areas of uncertainty where items were not identifiable or seemed confusing.

Evaluation

The problem is to determine if there is a definite effort in schools for evaluation of resource utilization in the teaching-learning process.

From the responses in River Rouge, it is evident that evaluation is used. There are instances of considerable agreement, as there are instances of disagreement and uncertainty. The items of agreement will be discussed first.

Goals are defined. The specific understandings, attitudes, skills and factual information considered as desirable objectives are undertaken. In setting up the goals the greatest stress is upon developing attitudes and beliefs. The development of desirable habits, such as health habits

and an ordered pattern of living, rank next among objectives set up. This is closely followed by the development of social sensitivity, the acquisition of factual information, and the development of skills. Next in order of importance are placed the development of interests, such as interest in the community and the major forces operating therein, and the development of personal-social relationships. Of slightly less importance are the development of critical thinking and building up a philosophy of life.

Under ways to evaluate resource use activities, greatest agreement is reached on the extent of factual information which is acquired and upon estimating change in beliefs, interests, appreciations, and social sensitivity. The acquisition of factual information is tested principally by written examinations. Estimating changes in beliefs, interests, social sensitivity and appreciations is made chiefly by observing student reactions and analysing statements made in class discussions.

The principle of defining goals was accepted either completely or in part by all respondents; there were no rejections. It was also agreed that evidence of achievement of these goals should be collected and assembled. Strong support was given to the proposition that decisions should be reached concerning the degree of present success, which is to say that conclusions should be formulated, based upon the evidence, concerning the extent to which sought goals are being realized.

The items of disagreement are few in number. There seems to be a mild reaction against setting up the development of appreciations as an objective, though the great majority favor this as a desirable goal. The

real disagreement centers around two items in ways to evaluate. These two items are among those nine items out of the entire 192 items in which the "No" and "In Part" answers outnumber the "Yes" answers. In the first item under consideration, ascertaining changes in personal-social relations by anecdotal recordings of individual reactions, thirty-five respondents indicated this practice was followed, while seven reported it as not operating and forty-four checked it as operating in part. The second item, appraising ability to apply generalizations, indicated operation in thirty-seven cases, non-operative in nine cases, and operation in part in forty instances.

Basic Principles

What are the broad concepts which reflect educational planning based upon human growth and development and which recognize the operation of dynamic social forces in the community?

What are the broad concepts which apply to the utilization of resources in the teaching-learning process? What are the general and specific principles, methods, and techniques which seem basic to this recent development?

Those areas of agreement will be presented first, followed by areas of disagreement and uncertainty as revealed by the study of River Rouge.

The highest degree of agreement is found in the concept of school and community relations, in the direct utilization of resources in the teaching-learning process. The teachers believe that their concept of education is broad. They are aware of the richness and depth that will

enhance their teaching and the pupils' learning because they know the community and use its available resources in their work. They believe that bringing the world and its life into the classroom is teaching at its best. The concept previously stated that bringing the world and its life into the classroom is teaching at its best has supporting items. It is held that involvement of community agencies, of community leaders and study of natural resources in the teaching-learning process is a most effective way to provide a functional curriculum. The proposition is accepted that community resources are inseparably linked to the learning experiences of young people. Another accepted principle is that all available resources of an educative nature should be utilized with the condition that the school assume responsibility to see that a balanced program is afforded each youngster.

They consider it highly important that they have a working knowledge of school and community problems, that they understand the broader social functions and relationships of the school teacher in society. They cooperate with and use the various educational agencies of the community. They accept a degree of responsibility along with other cultural agencies, to work for a better understanding of the potentialities and limitations in the resources of the community. They believe that practical laymen of the community realize that the time has come to strengthen the institution of public education as one of the first lines of defense. When they discuss school problems with laymen they use symbols and language intelligible to the laymen.

The principle is accepted that the teacher holds the most pivotal

position for making use of community resources to improve the instructional program. A supporting principle, in recognition of this, is that whatever the plan for tapping resources, teachers must be convinced that the plan is good and that they can use it for better teaching. More evidence of recognition of the key role of teachers is found in the concept that leadership is a function of all teachers passing alternately and concurrently from one to another in accordance with their ability to make distinctive contributions.

There is a high degree of agreement that education needs advocates who are willing to contribute their services, and that River Rouge has many of these people. However, the River Rouge teachers report that they do not always know the best means of utilizing this reservoir of human talent. To meet this need, they are developing the machinery which will enable them to draw much of the knowledge and energy of the community into the teaching-learning process.

There is practically unanimous acceptance of the concept of community centered education. This is signified by the principle that no good school can stand apart from the life of the community, for the two are woven together by human values and common interests. In support of this is acceptance of the principle that the community is a laboratory for training youth for self-realization, civic responsibility, and desirable human relations. There is agreement that three major objectives in the utilization of resources in the teaching-learning process are the development of social comprehension, social motivation, and social skills.

The observation is accepted that, generally, those persons who

demonstrate leadership have all the tasks of the community thrust upon them. To meet this problem River Rouge accepts the principle that the school should be able to recognize leadership wherever it exists and should accept the responsibility for helping citizens develop leadership qualities. A corollary proposition that teachers are tutors in human relations and group work for tomorrow's adult citizens is also accepted.

The principle is accepted that public understanding of modern schools and what they are attempting to do should be developed. It is agreed that this cannot be developed in the abstract alone; it must have something specific and concrete for reference. Every school and nearly every teacher is performing some functions in a superior manner. These can and must be used as evidence of the good that schools can do. This will tend to encourage greater participation and to release more community resources.

River Rouge rejects the idea of a static school. It accepts the principle that the school should be sensitive to new developments, adjust its program to them and keep its program flexible.

The areas of disagreement are few in number. There is mild disagreement with the proposition that in working with the community initiative must come from the school. There was slight disagreement with the proposal that education, to be realistic and vital, must set its curricular program within the framework of a carefully considered first-hand acquaintance with significant aspects of the learner's physical, biological, and social environment. Along with this proposal there was some objection to the principle that unless a school moves into the community proper it

must resort to artificial devices and incur the danger of achieving only artificial results.

The principle that laymen have been and should be an integral part of groups and committees working on curriculum revision and development does not operate to the fullest extent in River Rouge. This is supported by the response to the proposition that public participation in local education has caused a significant change in the schools since World War II, where the results show forty-two "Yes," twenty-one "No," and one "In Part" replies.

The results show that the teachers in River Rouge believe they have not been sensitized to the need for utilization of resources in the institutional program.

There is a strong belief in River Rouge that it is not the function of education to change the culture, that the school is a reflection of its culture, is part of the warp and woof. The tally shows forty-nine rejecting the principle, fourteen accepting it in part, and twenty accepting the principle. This is a definite indication that while River Rouge accepts community centered education, it does so as a resource-use school and not as a community school. It is primarily concerned with utilizing resources to improve the teaching-learning process rather than to improve the quality of living and change the culture.

Operating Practices

What are the ways and means of operation in getting at the resources and in making them a vital part of the teaching-learning process?

In River Rouge there is a high rate of agreement and evidence of

many procedures in operation. There is some disagreement, too. The areas of agreement will be presented first, followed by the areas of disagreement.

There is an extremely high rate of agreement that, as an operating principle, the schools should utilize all appropriate techniques for effectively relating the school with the community.

There is also strong agreement that community resources are excellent teaching materials which may be used as they are, or the schools may make instructional materials about the resources available.

Certain procedures in the guidance or direction of pupils operate to a great extent. The teachers guide pupils into situations where they discover interrelationships between subject matter fields as they relate to the use of community resources. Also, pupils are encouraged to discover and make extensive use of the services of other agencies. Again, in the use of resources in the teaching-learning process a sequential development of student experiences throughout each year is planned. This planning enables each community experience to be functionally related with both prior and subsequent experiences of the pupil.

The area of school and community relations includes several items of agreement. One of the accepted principles is that the educational adaptability of a community can be greatly enhanced by promoting a closer working relationship between the public and the schools. Closely related is the principle that there should be deliberate planning by teachers, administrators, board of education, and the public towards objectives determined by laymen and educators. Within this broad area is included the

principle of operation that the school shares with other agencies responsibility to provide opportunities for appropriate learning experience for all members of the community. In addition, the school will assist other youth serving agencies to provide the highest educational quality in all the social situations the child experiences. As part of the process of integrating the school and community, the school interprets community resources by discovering, developing and using them. Out of this resource use program, the people of the community learn to know their resources. There is a high rate of agreement that flexibility is important in the operating procedures. It is agreed that the schools of River Rouge are flexible and continually readjust their programs in light of the changing services of other community agencies. In utilizing resources in the teaching-learning process, it is agreed that a large measure of inventiveness is employed in adopting known techniques and developing new ones to meet the needs of the pupils in the local situation.

The internal operation of the school, involving teachers, administrators, and supervisors and their policy for approaching the community constitutes another broad area. To a very high degree, proper adjustments are made with the principal's office and with other teachers involved when pupils are taken into the community. There is a high degree of coordinated effort by the staff to give unity and direction to the resource use projects and for consideration of the problems involved in the teaching-learning process. It is regarded as essential to get the community and all staff members to realize that the teacher using community resources is not wasting the pupil's time or putting on a show. It is agreed that

time should be, and is provided within the daily schedule for teachers to take pupils into the community or to bring resource persons into the school.

It is agreed that administration and supervision should exert special efforts to arouse teachers to an awareness of the need for and value of resource use. It is recognized that the maximum use of community resources in the learning situation will require changes in some of the techniques and practices of administrators and supervisors. If administration has not set up a central office to act as the nerve center of resource utilization, then it must make certain that each teacher knows the sources of information concerning natural, human, and social resources of the community. Administration encourages teachers to visit other schools, observe master teachers and learn new methods and techniques, without loss in pay. The status of teacher tenure is important. A good resource use program to enrich and make functional the learning situation cannot be maintained if there is a high rate of teacher turnover which weakens the continuity and coordination of the program.

Another operating practice is for teachers in strategic positions, or those with strong contacts, to approach community leaders to gain their aid and influence leaders and agencies to make resources available for instructional purposes. At the same time, it is agreed that all teachers should know how to use contacts with the community to tap resources which improve the learning situation. There is a note of caution in all this. It is an accepted practice that, in studying the community, and utilizing resources, only so much should be attempted as the staff members can do

with interest and reasonable effort.

The study of the area of community resources should be integrated with existing organized subject matter fields rather than set up as a new subject matter field. As the community is studied three major levels of culture will need to be considered, as follows: material culture, institutional culture, and the psychological culture.

The maintenance of communication is highly regarded. This includes two-way communication between administration and staff, teacher and pupil, and school and community. As an actual practice, the latest technology of communication is used to present a graphic picture of all school activities and to illustrate the need of the school for additional resources. This is based on the principle that one of the steps in eliciting resources and services of the community is by the school interpreting the local educational program to the community.

In consideration of the fact that a resource-use school is involved with its community to a considerable extent, the school is concerned with human relations. At many times the school must guide and direct lay persons who would contribute their services. The principle is widely accepted and operates extensively that in a very real sense teachers and administrators must become skilled observers and guides of human behavior. The way a group of teachers, or a group of laymen, or a group of laymen and teachers function is considered important. The principle is highly accepted that, if the full creative power of human resources is to be released in any group situation, a congenial, emotional climate, a permissive atmosphere must exist so that the neophyte in the

group will feel as free to make his contribution as will the expert or status leader.

There are also some areas of disagreement. Some are related while others seem separate and distinct.

While the concept of planning a sequential development of student experiences in using community resources is accepted, there is mild disagreement regarding implementation. Not completely acceptable is the concept that the sequence begins with material culture. About the same degree of mild disagreement is registered against the proposal to expand the study into three related dimensions, space, time, and scope. There is evidence of confusion and uncertainty regarding these items. Another paralleling item is the concept that the community must be perceived in wholeness as well as in its elements, with a guiding principle to concentrate upon setting, processes and structure rather than upon problems until the senior high school level. There is disagreement with this, though the majority accept it.

Two more related items concern controversial issues and student appraisal of community leaders. The latter item states that secondary school pupils should be permitted to discuss in class the strengths and weaknesses of community leaders as they appear in assembly programs or in classes. Forty-two register approval, nineteen are opposed, and twenty-four say "In Part." There is a greater degree of disagreement on the proposal that the school should consider controversial issues, utilizing literature and speakers provided by labor, management, and political parties. There are thirty-six in favor, twenty-four opposed, and twenty-three who

say "In Part."

There is a feeling that the principal should be more active. In reply to the proposition that, in any effort to utilize education through relating the school program more closely to community life, the principal must assume a major share of the responsibility, forty-nine said he did, twenty said he did not, and sixteen replied "In part."

The idea that resource use projects must be initiated by the school, with the teacher as the spearhead, is not completely accepted. Forty-seven agree that the "spark" must come from the school, fifteen say "No," and twenty-four reply "In Part."

Teaching Techniques

The problem is to determine what teaching techniques are used for the utilization of resources in the teaching-learning process.

There is a very high rate of agreement in River Rouge in this category. The greatest agreement is found in the item, "Aid pupils to gain understanding of their responsibility for improvement of local community and society." Next in order of agreement is "Teacher varies assignments in classroom and on field trips according to the abilities and interests of the learners. Ranking next is "Teacher utilizes knowledges and skills of other teachers within the staff to facilitate instruction in special areas. This is followed by "Teacher aids pupils in correcting misconceptions concerning agencies and individuals in the community." Next in order is "Stressing the value of cooperation in group planning and in community planning." This is followed by "Guiding pupils into situations where they discover inter-relationships between subject matter

fields as they relate to the use of community resources." Then follows "The use of pictorial and graphic illustrations of aspects of the community for more effective learning." Finally, "Teacher encourages pupils to state their views concerning existing situations and conditions in the community as a means for determining the extent of comprehension of the problems involved.

Organization Principles

What type of organization is favorable to the utilization of resources in the teaching-learning process? What are the principles and procedures of organization which operate in resource-use schools?

The greatest areas of disagreement are found in this category. However, there are several areas of agreement which will be presented first, followed by the areas of disagreement and uncertainty.

The first area of agreement to be considered will be the idea of a materials bureau or community service center included in the internal organization. At its best this center would offer three major services—acting as a clearing house, as a resource library, and as an instructional agency. While River Rouge has no official community service center in its internal organization, it does approach the three major objectives. There is a director of the audio-visual center and a system wide audio-visual committee. Information about places to visit and resource persons is exchanged and files are kept on community resources. One department head is released half-time every day to make community contacts, and other key staff members make contacts and tap many resources for the instructional program. Therefore, in answering items related to a community service

center, the River Rouge teachers considered that they had a facility within their organization providing approximate service.

There was high agreement that a community service center would be responsible to maintain good public relations. That it would discover additional community resources; that it would act as an agency with responsibility to the school and community; that it would promote the school community resource utilization by distributing lists of possible projects; that it would assist with community projects, help inexperienced teachers in utilizing resources in the teaching-learning process, and provide expert advice to community agencies in their own educational efforts and programs; and last, that it would coordinate and control difficult school-community relationships.

It is agreed that personal contact is essential in cultivating community resources. Also it is agreed that all personnel phases of resource-use plans, and especially in the use of persons as resources, must be carried out in a highly intelligent manner.

The organization must provide adequately for working relations with other educative agencies in the community. Contacts made with community leaders or community agencies whose services are sought in the instructional program should be made by or with the approval of the school's administrative officer. At the same time, it is agreed that there should be considerable participation of teachers and pupils in the selection of agencies and leaders whose services will be utilized by them. The school should possess specific information concerning the functions and services of other agencies, including government agencies which serve youth and

provide educational services. It is agreed that these agencies should be used extensively by schools when their social and material resources can contribute to the realization of the aims of the resource-use school. In order to maintain the good will of these agencies, and also to insure maximum benefits from the time spent with them, it is agreed that student tours, visits, all manifestations of resource use must be carefully organized from the standpoint of economy of time.

Planning committees involving lay persons and educators should be provided a place in the organization. To a very high degree it is accepted as a general rule that lay participants on planning committees will have deep interest in good education and probably will be persons who have something at stake in the community.

The organization must be flexible rather than static. It is agreed that flexibility must be maintained, that the school responds to the dynamics of its community and society, adjusts its program to local needs, discards the obsolete and provides the new.

It has been stated that the school organization must stimulate interest in resources. There is high agreement that a good means to do this is to organize and present exhibits and models of community resources.

The concept of a coordinating community council is accepted as good policy in education. There is no official community coordinating council in River Rouge. However, there are committees and groups including representative persons of the community. Educators of River Rouge are active in most of these groups. The administrative organization of River Rouge works closely with other agencies of the community. Close

liaison is maintained between the administrative office and other agencies. Joint planning of programs and pooling of resources is accepted policy. Actually, there is some degree of coordination of community effort and resources even though no officially designated coordinating council exists. River Rouge teachers answered items about the coordinating council from this background of cooperation and membership in councils and committees coordinate within ways or areas of community activity.

It is agreed that school people participating in a coordinating council will do the following: they will provide leadership and act with others in making and keeping the council a potent educational force in the community. They will strive to maintain democratic values in group discussion, group decision, group planning, and encourage objective thinking about controversial issues. They will guide the council using evaluative procedures. They will help sensitize the council members to the needs, interests, and problems of youth. They will work for widening the base of the council membership to include young people in the deliberating, the planning, and the executing of policies.

While the River Rouge teachers replied favorably to items describing activities of educators in a coordinating council, they are very conscious of the fact that there is no official coordinating council in River Rouge. In reply to the item concerning the existence of a coordinating community council, there were no affirmative replies. However, twenty-two thought it existed in part. In reply to a second question, that a coordinating council is a cooperative organization of groups and individuals working together for the social welfare of the community,

sixteen thought the equivalent of this existed and thirty-two thought it existed in part. In reply to a third item stating that the fundamental key to success in all programs involving use of community resources for educational purposes is community coordination, thirty-two replied that there was coordination, seven said "No," and thirty-two replied "In Part." There is evidence of uncertainty here, as only seventy-one out of eighty-eight respondents replied.

Another area of disagreement concerned the problem of how the staff operates and how skilled the staff is in the matter of utilizing resources in the teaching-learning process.

In reply to the first item, that the school must have a highly trained staff for this purpose for human engineering is involved, forty believed that there is such a staff, fourteen said "No," while twenty-six said it exists "In Part." Does the school assume a leadership relationship to adults? Forty-six said "Yes," ten said "No," and twenty-four said "In Part."

Additional principles and methods were suggested by the River Rouge staff. The extensive experiences and backgrounds of the River Rouge staff made them alert to new developments in the field. Consequently, they were able to contribute new ideas and point out new developments. For example, the concept of the "reverse field trip" and recent developments in this area were brought to the attention of the author. Ideas were contributed also in coordination of resource use activities, in principles of organization and in principles of operation. As a result, new items were added to the tentative instrument. In its revised form it was submitted to the selected Southern schools.

CHAPTER VI

ANALYSIS OF THE LIST OF GENERALIZATIONS BY PERSONNEL OF SELECTED SOUTHERN SCHOOLS

In a design to give balance to the study of resource utilization in the teaching-learning process and to provide a broader sampling, certain schools in the Southern states were included. In most cases the schools were located in rural areas. However, there were two large urban schools in St. Petersburg and Clearwater in Pinellas County, Florida. The schools included in this chapter are: Laboratory High School, East Tennessee State Teachers College, Johnson City, Tennessee; Grimesland High School, Grimesland, North Carolina; Laboratory High School, Georgia State Teachers College, Statesboro, Georgia; the Parker School District, Greenville, South Carolina; Alachua High School, Alachua, Florida; Osceola County schools and four Pinellas County schools in Florida.

One of the selected schools has received national recognition over a long period of years for leadership in resource utilization. Another has received recognition as a community school and for effective utilization of resources. One has received recognition as a community-centered school, while a fourth school has been recognized for its work with natural resources.

In all of the selected Southern schools, utilization of resources in the teaching-learning process is an accepted policy. Administrators or supervisors were contacted in all schools, on the assumption that they would have a comprehensive knowledge of the total resource use program in

their schools. All of the Florida schools in the study were visited for personal observation. Correspondence and personal contact with school officials were used in the other schools.

The resource utilization projects and related activities described in the following paragraphs have been selected on the basis of their contribution to resource utilization and the principles, methods and techniques they illustrate. In addition, the descriptions are intended to show justification for the inclusion of the schools in the study and to indicate the probable ability of their staff to identify and evaluate the abstract principles of resource utilization incorporated into the tentative instrument.

The first section of the chapter will contain descriptions of projects involving utilization of resources in the teaching-learning process in the selected Southern schools. In the second section, the results of the survey conducted in the Southern schools by the use of the revised tentative instrument will be discussed in a summary report.

Johnson City, Tennessee

This laboratory high school of the East Tennessee State Teachers College is located in a rural area. There is some industry in Johnson City, but most of the students come from a rural background. Extensive use of the educational excursion is made in this school. Likewise, considerable use is made of human resources and community organizations. In planning field trips careful consideration is given to the maturity level and to the background and understandings of the students. Pre-planning by teachers and pupils and evaluation afterwards have become accepted

policy. The school believes that utilization of community resources in the teaching-learning process is highly important and that the educational excursion is a most effective means of utilizing resources.

Field trips are made to the radio station, telephone exchange, veterans hospital, airport, railroad station, banks, city hall, farms, fish hatchery, local textile mill, Tennessee Valley Authority Dam (Watauga) and to places where natural resources can be studied. Also, like many other schools, the senior class makes a trip to Washington, D. C.

The field trip to Watauga will serve to illustrate the techniques used in the educational excursion. History, civics and science classes make this trip.

The class plans the trip well in advance. The teacher makes contacts in advance and arranges for a guide. In pre-planning, pupils study folders and maps of the dam. They study the entire Tennessee Valley Project and what it has contributed to the whole region. When the students leave for the field trip, each one has a clipboard. On the clipboard are specific questions to ask, special items to look for, and space for the answers. On their return, accounts will be written up, and the trip will be evaluated by students and teacher.

Mention might be made of resources that are used. When the students visit the airport, free plane rides are arranged. When they visit the railroad station, they get a free ride on the train. They make broadcasts over the radio. Also, extensive use is made of the radio station during National Education Week, and for special events.

People are used as resources in classes. The students contact

the resource person and invite him to visit their class. Among resource persons used are professional workers, doctors, dentists, nurses, a state representative, a national congressman, professors, business people, and representatives of the military forces and of the police and fire departments.

Two important resources tapped are the Boys Club and a symphony orchestra. The Boys Club is an important aid in the area of life adjustment. It provides a recreational outlet, works with juvenile delinquents, and through cooperation with the school helps to keep potential drop-outs in school. The North Carolina Little Symphony Orchestra brings a taste of classical music to Johnson City. The Civic Music Club acts as the nucleus and cooperates each year with the Faculty Club, or Parent-Teacher Association, or the senior class to bring this symphony orchestra to Johnson City.

Teacher education is considered quite important. Teachers in the Laboratory School visit other schools to find new techniques, new ideas, and solutions to difficult problems. The Laboratory School teachers derive considerable benefit from the Annual Reading Clinic held by the college for teachers in the northeastern area of Tennessee. Outstanding speakers and consultants are brought to the Reading Clinic. At the elementary level, demonstration lessons are given for each grade. At the secondary level, demonstration lessons are in subject areas, or in core classes. Master teachers are utilized for these demonstrations.

Statesboro, Georgia

This is a rural community. Ninety per cent of the students,

coming from rural homes, are transported to this laboratory high school at the South Georgia State Teachers College. Cooperation and consultation with parents, and the utilization of parents as resources are not strong features of the program. With so high a percentage of the students transported from scattered rural areas, it is a physical impossibility for most of the parents to enter into the school program. The parents are interested, but the only solution seems to be for the school to move out into the rural areas and organize parent groups for joint parent-school cooperation. The school is making tentative plans for this move. At the same time, cooperation and coordination with other agencies at Statesboro is not extensive. This is in part due to the fact that the great majority of the students live outside of Statesboro.

However, resources are used in the teaching-learning process, and are considered important. Resources used include the college radio station for broadcasting, a farm equipment company, the Savannah Chamber of Commerce, resource people, a branch of the State Audio Visual library, a local peanut processing plant, and cattle shows.

The farm equipment company gives demonstrations of farm machinery, using farms of students for the demonstrations. Resource people include college faculty, bankers, insurance writers, preachers, the newspaper editor, the county agent and the home demonstration agent. Extensive use is made of the college faculty, especially in the fields of music, art and science. The college faculty members are most helpful in coming into class to interpret art, music, or science to the students. In using resource people, the teacher makes the initial contact, and the principal

is kept informed. A branch of the State Audio-Visual Library is located on the campus. This constitutes a rich source of resources. All equipment, all records, slides and films are available for enriching the instructional program. There are no orders, no shipping arrangements to worry about. Whatever is required is picked up at the office.

Field trips are used to provide "real life" experiences. Many field trips are made to Savannah, where the Savannah Chamber of Commerce is verycooperative in helping to make arrangements for these visits. The field trips are a definite part of the organization of the school. They are planned in advance and are cleared with the principal, who arranges free bus transportation. County school buses are used for this purpose. Places visited in Savannah are the airport, the paper mill, the sea port, the newspaper plant, the United States Naval Stores Shipping Center, and points of historic interest.

The major venture in educational excursions is the camping program. Starting in 1950, seventh, eighth and ninth grade pupils have spent one week in camp. Theygo in April or May. They have no designated camp, and have to find a new one each year, which is a valuable learning experience. They borrow United States Army tents and equipment, and secure free transportation in county school buses.

Definite themes are stated as the major purpose of each annual camping program. In 1950 the theme was democratic group living, and in 1951 the theme was conservation. Considerable pre-planning is involved. Specific duties for each person are designated in advance. Maps are made by the students. The theme of the camping program is integrated into the

curriculum. Evaluation is given due consideration. As part of the evaluation, one day is set aside for parents, teachers and college classes to come out to observe the camping activities. Upon returning to school, the students and teachers evaluate the entire experience.

Grimesland, North Carolina

The Grimesland High School is a rural consolidated school, grades one through twelve. It is located in the tobacco, peanut growing section in the coastal plains. This school approaches the concept of a community school. While it makes extensive use of resources in the teaching-learning process, it also uses resources to a certain extent to improve the quality of living.

The county agricultural agent, the county farm agent, and the home demonstration agent are used as resource persons in school for the enrichment of the vocational agriculture curriculum, and for the instructional materials they contribute.

The agriculture teacher and the county agricultural agent help students set up model farms. They direct the students in such projects as tree pruning and land terracing to combat soil erosion. Thus, real life activities and the world of work are made an integral part of the curriculum.

The educational excursion is used extensively. The school believes that the community should be used as a laboratory for practical learning. The school has accepted the policy of shaping the curriculum around the community and of pulling the community resources into the teaching-learning process of the school. Field trips are made to dairy

plants, tobacco factories, the fertiliser plant, the water plant, the farm machinery plant, to places where the natural environment may be studied, and to the county court and county government offices.

There are examples of coordinated projects, utilizing community resources for life adjustment, health, and occupational purposes.

The health program was developed because many of the tenant farmers and their families had tuberculosis. The services of the county health nurse and the county health doctor are used extensively. The home economics teacher and the agriculture teacher "sparked" the program. The school lunch program was used to provide wholesome nourishment and to help build up the health of the pupils. A school garden is used to help provide nourishing foods.

A Human Relations Week is used to help with life adjustment problems. Ministers, doctors, nurses, parents, the county supervisor, and a consultant in human relationships from the State Department of Education participate. The talents and knowledges of these resource people are concentrated on issues concerning character, moral and spiritual values, boy-girl relationships, home planning, and marriage and family.

A Career Day is held annually for the seniors, with farmers, doctors, lawyers, a journalist and other vocational representatives participating.

Grimesland High School, believing as it does in resource utilization, is conscious of the value of public relations. It has developed excellent relations with the county newspaper. The staff has visited the school numerous times, knows the school plant, the faculty and the school

program, and performs an excellent service in interpreting the school to the community.

Alachua High School, Alachua, Florida

Kate Wofford, writing in the 1952 Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education, says that "Alachua ranks high by all four criteria of the good community school."[1] Wofford believes that Alachua is an excellent example of utilization of resources in the teaching-learning process.

Alachua is a rural consolidated school, grades one to twelve. Alachua school believes in utilization of resources in the teaching-learning process. It believes in utilizing community resources to the fullest extent, in improving the school and its program. It has been quite successful in coordinating community resources to improve the school and the community.

In the two weeks pre-planning period before school opens, Alachua teachers invite community groups, comprising representative segments of the community, to participate. Students also are included in the pre-planning period. One of the major concerns each year is the planning of a Community Calendar. This is done to avoid conflicts, to avoid having different community groups competing with programs on the same night, and to present a balanced program of activities to the community. Even church

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[1]Kate V. Wofford, "Better Rural Education Through Reorganization of the Administrative Unit and Curriculum," 1952 Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education, Part II, p. 181.

groups cooperate in planning their revival meetings.

The Community Health Council is an example of coordinated, cooperative effort in use of resources. The Woman's Club, the Parent-Teacher Association, the Civic Club, County Health Department, teachers, selected pupils from the senior high grades, the visiting teacher, and the Lions Club all work together in a coordinated effort. In this way, health needs of youth are met. The Lions Club pays for glasses for children from low income families. In the words of the school principal, the community helps the school and the school helps the community.

The community contributed materials, equipment, and labor to beautify the school grounds and build a badly needed sidewalk. The community helped the school with its football field. A special fish fry was held to raise funds and $7,000 was realized in one night for the football field.

An example of the use of the community as a living laboratory of learning is the use made of local farms. Boys visit farms and judge sheep, cows, pigs, and fowl. Learning to judge livestock and fowl is quite an important skill in a rural community.

There are other projects and other examples of coordinated community effort which a detailed study would reveal. As space is limited attention will now be directed to the internal organization of the school. Guidance is considered an integral part of the curriculum and is carried out from the first to the twelfth grade. This is identical with the concept in River Rouge, Michigan. Also, identical with River Rouge is the policy to place all graduates in jobs or in college. Evidence of

curriculum reconstruction is the two hour block period in the ninth grade for social living, and the course in home planning which is offered to seniors.

Teacher education is quite important in Alachua. For a considerable time, a serious study of child growth and development has been conducted. The stated purpose is to keep up with developments in the science of child growth and development. Resources are tapped for this, too. Consultant services from the University of Maryland are brought in three times a year. The program is financed by the Bureau of Child Hygiene.

Alachua School serves its community in many ways. One example is the accelerated adult education program. By this program, adults of the community may complete their high school education, or pursue other work of interest or benefit to themselves. The school repairs free of charge all farm equipment brought in for this service. The Home Economics teacher and her advanced classes visit homes and give valuable advice and help for home improvement. The facilities, the plant, and the services of the school are available to help serve the community.

Pinellas County

Pinellas County, Florida, has conducted some interesting work in resource utilization in the teaching-learning process. As it is a large county and contains several unusual programs, it will be treated in sections. The first section will discuss over-all county projects, stressing cooperative endeavor, coordination of resources, and county wide relations with agencies and organizations of the community. The second section will discuss the units in conservation of natural

resources in the Belleair Elementary School. The third section will discuss projects St. Petersburg High School, and the fourth section will discuss projects in Clearwater High School.

One of the early ventures on a county-wide basis was the production of a book entitled Pinellas Resources in 1945. This was the report of a county-wide workshop in resources education, of which Clara M. Olson of the University of Florida was director. Teachers and administrators from the entire county worked in the project. Numerous resource persons with special knowledge of the county were consulted. In addition, several consultants with special backgrounds were utilized. The major topics were: early history, significant factors in growth of the county, natural resources of the region, population characteristics, living in Pinellas County, institutions, cultural advantages, recreational opportunities, living from the land, industrial assets and opportunities, and problems and opportunities.

This penetrating analysis of the entire county has been of great value in county-wide and district planning for taking full advantage of the opportunities and for working out solutions to the common problems of the region. It was hoped that this book would help to make the interested and concerned citizen more aware of the natural and human factors of the region and of their interrelatedness. That he would develop a sensitivity to problems and opportunities was also desired. Evidence indicates that this extensive project helped to induce the educative agencies of the county to plan and work together, to meet their common responsibility in developing a sane and creative approach to resource use and

development for the continued prosperity of the region.

One of the more interesting county-wide projects is the Summer School Enrichment Program, under the Director of Health, Physical Education, Safety and Recreation. Arts, crafts, outdoor recreation, swimming, typing, and browsing in the library are featured. During the school year, golf instruction has been provided to many students. In the summer enrichment program students play on the golf course at no cost.

A complicated but apparently effective organization has been worked out for the coordination of all school and agency resources for ministering to the needs of youth. The Welfare Department, the Police Department, County Health Unit and the Child Guidance Clinic and the schools are important elements in this coordination of effort.

In an attempt to improve working relationships, to prevent duplication of effort, and to reach common agreement on important matters of policy, a county-wide coordinating committee for the schools was established in 1951. All county schools are represented. This committee makes policy for the county. It makes decisions on all major issues and problems. All major educational matters and policy are cleared by the Coordinating Committee.

An extremely important group has been the Lay Advisory Council. For years the schools tried to pass bond issues to raise funds for a much needed building program. They were unsuccessful. In 1950, the Lay Advisory Council was created. Principals in local schools prepared lists of civic-minded citizens. The county superintendent appointed 150 members from these lists. The council included four area committees. It

divided itself into sub-groups such as finance, planning, and publicity. Its greatest achievement has been the passage of a bond issue of $6,000,000. This will make possible a new high school in Clearwater, a new high school in St. Petersburg, and six new elementary schools.

The Belleair Elementary School. The unit on conservation of natural resources developed in the Belleair Elementary School has received national recognition. It was covered by the Associated Press releases on April 10, 1948. Its program is another example of utilization of resources in the teaching-learning process.

This work started originally in March, 1947, with five classes. In 1952, thirteen classes worked on a conservation unit. The original unit on natural resources was organized by subjects for each grade. Pupils in each of the grades worked on subjects of conservation at their level of understanding.

> The work was organized on a school basis with each class studying and developing a definite part of the whole unit.
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> First grade pupils studied fruits and vegetables found in Pinellas County. They learned the different kinds of vegetables, such as root, stem, and leafy. They collected pictures of vegetables and drew pictures; they molded the vegetables with clay and painted them. All work done was with words and pictures on a first grade level.
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> Second grade pupils advanced a step and learned about the classification of foods, such as yellow, green, orange, etc., foods which should be included in the daily diet. They studied the plants on which the fruits and vegetables grow. They demonstrated slipping and grafting plants such as geraniums and gardenias. They discussed the growing of orchids. The eight year old "plant doctors" diagnosed the illness of many sick plants that had been potted by the school children the first of the year.
>
> Third grade pupils made a collection and scientific study of insects found in Pinellas County. They learned

to identify both harmful and helpful insects.

Fourth grade pupils made an extensive study of Pinellas soil types. They learned to test soil for the purpose of ascertaining its acidulous or alkaline condition. They studied drainage, artificial irrigation, fertilization and other processes of maintaining healthy soils.

Fifth grade pupils studied the industries of Pinellas. They visited and interviewed men who have been successful in various industries. This class also gave the summary for the entire unit and pointed out several problems of conservation in Pinellas. Some of these are the need for better water management, prevention of forest fires, better sewage disposal, protection for wildlife, and prevention of soil and water depletion and soil erosion.[2]

Resource persons used included Colin D. Gunn and H. B. Helms, State Conservationists; Gordon Webb, Chief, Current Information Section, Southeastern Region, Soil Conservation Service; H. R. Blissland, Wildlife Biologist; D. W. Pittman, Work Group Conservationist; and E. D. Mathews, Soil Scientist, all of the Soil Conservation Service and the Board of Supervisors, Pinellas Soil and Water Conservation District. A total of fifteen other local resource persons representing special areas of natural resources were used.

In addition, ten films were furnished by the United States Department of Agriculture, and four films were secured from the General Extension Division, University of Florida. All were on natural resources.

The evaluation of the unit on conservation of natural resources by the teachers presents a summary of the significant outcomes. It is presented at this point.

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[2]Conservation of Natural Resources. A Cooperative School Unit Developed in Belleair Elementary School, Clearwater, Florida. Pinellas County Board of Public Instruction, St. Petersburg, Florida, 1950. pp. 14-15.

The cooperative study of Pinellas resources was started in the Belleair Elementary School as an experiment. The faculty believed that by studying the various natural resources of the county, including plants, animals, birds, soils, and other community resources, the children would begin to understand and appreciate the bountiful heritage that is theirs. The value of the study is being realized in the growing interest, attitudes, and understandings evidenced by the pupils and teachers who have participated in the program since its inception in 1946.

Belleair teachers feel that they have found a meaningful way to teach science. In the process of developing the units, the children not only have learned many basic scientific facts but have awakened to the realization that the future of our county, state, and nation depends upon wise use of natural resources.

Evaluation must be in terms of objectives sought. The real test of growth in curriculum development lies in the quality of thought and action of individuals and groups as they face their problems of everyday living. In the development of these cooperative units the teachers set up definite goals of attainment.

At no time have goals been to teach technical or scientific facts in the field of conservation; but rather to develop understandings and critical thinking on the part of young children.

The children who are learning to use community resources wisely are growing steadily in their sensitivity to their world of people, places and things. Young children who have learned how to observe carefully, think critically, interpret wisely, seek help on specific problems, where to go in their community for authoritative answers to questions are more likely to become adults who unite community forces effectively to meet common problems.[3]

St. Petersburg. One of the interesting and valuable projects in the St. Petersburg High School is the utilization of resources in Career Day. For each of the three successive years, 1949, 1950, and 1951, 2,000 students in grades ten, eleven, and twelve have participated. One hundred

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[3]Ibid., p. 107.

twenty consultants were used in 1949, 115 in 1950, and sixty-five in 1951. The occupational fields covered in Career Day are determined by a check list of occupational interests from all students involved. An unusual feature is the technique for securing consultants. Community clubs and organizations secure the occupational consultants. Another point of interest is that all pupils are scheduled to spend one day on the job in the occupation of their choice.

College Day is another project in the area of counseling, involving the utilization of resources. Twenty-five colleges and universities send representatives to meet with students seeking information about colleges, careers and professional opportunities. This is part of a tri-county cooperative program. Other participating schools usually limit this to seniors, but in St. Petersburg all senior high students participate. All are exposed to this collegiate representation. This is partially due to the fact that 55 per cent of the St. Petersburg graduates go to college, indicating a high student interest in colleges.

The Florida State Employment Service is utilized in the counseling program somewhat on the same basis as described in the fifth chapter for River Rouge and the Michigan State Employment Service. The General Aptitude Test Battery has been administered to students by the employment service. There has been close cooperation between the school and employment service in placing many students in suitable jobs.

The educational excursion has been used in a unique manner in St. Petersburg. It has become an extremely vital part of the teaching-learning process in certain instances. The high school has its own bus.

It is not limited by the regular schedule of the county school buses in planning field trips. The usual field trips are made to government offices, public service facilities, to the museum, and the like. The more unusual field trips are those made to the North, and to foreign countries.

Trips are made to Washington, D. C., to see the nation's capital, and to New York to see the myriad of activities in the largest city in the world. Another objective in making these trips is to see the change of season, to see snow, which the native Floridians have never seen. These trips have been sponsored by the Social Science Department.

In different years, groups of students have gone to Cuba, to Mexico, and to Guatemala. These trips have been made by plane. They have been sponsored by the Spanish Department and have been carefully integrated into the curriculum. The objectives stated are as follows: to make foreign language realistic; to provide opportunity to live it, experience it, use it; to give new and graphic concepts of other lands, to develop personality, sense of group loyalty, sense of responsibility and initiative.

A rather unusual use of students as resources is described. There are four junior high schools in St. Petersburg. Seniors from the high school are sent as ambassadors to the junior high schools to stimulate interest in senior high school, and to help in the orientation to senior high. They explain the extra-curricular program and activities to the junior high school students. These "resource seniors" are graduates of the junior high they talk to, and have been successful in high school activities. They try to encourage the belief in their junior high audience

that they too can succeed in high school.

Leadership training is considered important and a special project called "Leadership Class" is used for this purpose. Resource people are used to help train the students. A major purpose is to train pupils for the student council and other key organizations. Topics discussed include faculty relations, community responsibility, and responsibility to fellow students. The general themes of the projects have included working together, cooperative work relations, assuming larger responsibility, and "Your Student Council in Action."

Use of community resources to provide special services and a more functional curriculum is described briefly. The Lions Club, the Kiwanis Club, and the Optimists Club have provided the staff and special equipment for free examination of eyes and ears, to determine visual acuity and ability to hear. Provision has been made by local dentists for free dental examinations in cooperation with the State Dental Association and the Pinellas County Dental Office. Free dental examinations were arranged for all seniors and were to be made on school time.

The Distributive Cooperative-Training Program, combining work experience with the school curriculum, makes excellent utilization of resources and provides meaningful relations between school and the world of work. The County Vocational School is used to supplement the St. Petersburg High School shop program, providing industrial and technical training not available in the high school. The St. Petersburg Junior College provides classes in German for high school pupils.

Clearwater High School. Clearwater High School believes in

utilizing a variety of resources in the teaching-learning process. At the same time, it believes in rendering many services to the community. It conceives of its community as being a huge wheel of many spokes, with itself the hub of the wheel, the nerve center of the community. Insofar as youth are concerned, this seems quite apparent.

Service to the community will be considered first. The school band plays at special events, on public occasions, holidays and in parades, and gives concerts. The glee club sings to civic groups, and takes a prominent part in the annual Easter Sunrise Sing. The school, in cooperation with civic groups, develops a community calendar each year. This centers on the use of the school auditorium by the school and community. It includes all programs, including visiting arts. The school lunchroom serves various civic groups using the school as a community center. Adult education, including business and secretarial, vocational subjects, arts and crafts, civic forums, and family life institutes, provides a useful service to the community.

It is believed that counseling and job placement are important functions of the school. Wherever possible, resources are used for this purpose. The most recent Career Day included representatives from the armed services, from eight Florida colleges, and forty representatives from business and industry. Parents were invited to attend and they did so. The annual College Day, described previously under the section on St. Petersburg, is a joint venture involving Largo, Tarpon Springs, and Clearwater high schools. Two local churches are used for meeting places and all participants eat in the school cafeteria. The Florida State Employment

Service cooperates in counseling, and tested seventy seniors the past year. In addition, local employers are used as resources, with each senior spending half a day on the job in the occupation of his choice.

Work experience was made available for forty students who were placed on the job through Distributive Cooperative-Training Program. During the past year, of twenty-eight who graduated, nineteen were hired by the same employer.

The Senior Problems Class is an example of curriculum reconstruction and of resource utilization in the teaching-learning process. Some of the projects are personality development, boy-girl relations, home and family, consumer education, and social security. Resource people including a banker, lawyer, home demonstration agent, druggist, advertising agency representative, insurance salesman, and automobile salesman have been brought into class. Field trips are made in small groups as well as by the entire class. An interesting visit was made by the entire class to an investment broker's office. There they saw the ticker tape and watched stock quotations come in. They also listened to an informative talk on stocks and bonds. There are three Senior Problems classes and the school is in the second year of this new program.

It seems appropriate to close with a few words about the wheel and hub concept of Clearwater High School. According to Principal Feagle, the school is the hub around which revolve all community activities for youth, and, insofar as possible, other activities for the entire community. The areas of activity included in the wheel are work experience, placement service, athletics and recreation, summer enrichment program,

music and dramatics, auditorium, school and community programs, community workshop, lay advisory groups, library, utilization of community resources, school lunchroom, open house, guidance services, civic organizations and adult education. Feagle believes there must be two way channels of communication which draw the community into the school and take the school into the community. This, he believes, provides an effective educational situation which serves the needs of the individual and improves the living of the community.[4]

Parker District, South Carolina

The Parker School District has received considerable attention in the second chapter, under the early history of resource utilization. However, it seems important to present certain ideas and projects in the Parker District of a more recent date. It is quite evident that this school believes in extensive utilization of resources in the teaching-learning process. It is also quite evident that Parker District thinks of itself as a community school. The following major goals illustrate the latter point:

A. To develop better citizenship in both children and adults (acceptance of responsibility, leadership, personality).
B. To meet the individual needs of our people (health, basic skills, vocational self-sufficiency).
C. To work in and with the community for improved living (better homes, worthwhile leisure-time activities, cooperative work, people fitted into proper roles in

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[4]W. B. Feagle, "How Effective Can the High School Be as a Community Center," Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, XXXIV, No. 170. Washington, D. C.: April, 1950, pp. 31-40.

community life).[5]

The attitude of the Parker District toward using the community as a living laboratory is summed up in this manner:

> In Parker District, more and more, the community is becoming our school. As we try to meet the varied needs of boys and girls in our school, we find ourselves turning to the community for help; and as we do so, we see numerous opportunities for helping our students by assisting them to become an important part of the community. We have found in our community a wide field for study and practical application of the skills learned in the classroom, a field where most of our classes frequently visit, study and work. In addition, individuals whose experiences provide information concerning the community are often asked to talk to classes, or are interviewed by pupils.[6]

An impression of the extent of resource utilization in the teaching-learning process may be gained from the results of a school wide survey, over a one year period. Ninety per cent of the teachers made use of resources. Pupils made contacts with 156 resource persons and made 160 field trips. Typical examples of places visited include: city airport, army air base, police station, city jails, stores (grocery, jewelry, ready-to-wear, furniture, wholesale dealers, etc.), factories (cotton gins, fertilizer plants, mattress factories, textile mills, lumber companies, refrigerating plants), real estate offices, banks, city, state, and federal government offices (City Hall, auditor's office, Social Security office, County Health Office, State Highway Patrol Headquarters, Employment Bureau), theaters, homes, bakeries, cotton fields, Paris

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[5] Parker High School Serves Its People, p. 5. Greenville, South Carolina: Parker District Schools, 1942.

[6] Ibid., p. 60.

Mountain State Park, juvenile court, service organization headquarters (Salvation Army, Red Cross, Young Mens Christian Association, Young Womens Christian Association), churches, City Library, hospitals, Fire Department, Post Office, nearby schools and colleges.

Of the many persons who have come to the classrooms or have been interviewed by individual students, the following are representative: lawyers, architects, insurance agents, food and fashion experts, tax collector, interior decorators, store representatives, ministers, district gardening supervisor, local soldiers and sailors, college professors and students, doctors, nurses, FBI agents, radio commentators, judges, mill superintendents, school principals, Red Cross representatives, air raid wardens, Federal Housing Administration officials, head of Phyllis Wheatley Center.[7]

It is quite important to note that parents are considered a most helpful resource of the community. Every effort is made to work with parents. Open house nights are popular. At other times gatherings are held for the sole purpose of making pupils, teachers and parents better acquainted. Whenever it is possible, parents are brought into many phases of the instructional program, including the planning.

As the school uses the community, and in turn serves the community, community-school cooperation increases. Adults discover that pupils can render valuable assistance in carrying out community improvements. As a consequence, adults are willing to plan and work cooperatively with

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[7] Ibid., pp. 60-61.

youth. The teachers are realizing more clearly that participation in community life furnishes some of the best educational experiences which can be made available to students. Illustrations of some of the more valuable projects undertaken by students as part of their regular study which constitute stimulating contributions to the teaching-learning process are presented here.

For example, a senior social science class worked with a local community council to put into operation needed civic projects. The class conducted a community survey to collect needed data. Out of this developed a community clean-up campaign, which provided excellent citizenship training for these senior students.

Another group, working on health, inoculated nineteen babies at a diphtheria clinic which they sponsored. This clinic was used as a model for summer clinics in typhoid and smallpox being sponsored by the district-wide community council.

A student committee studying crime furnished a program on juvenile delinquency for a meeting of the Parent-Teacher Association. The juvenile judge and the probation officer appeared in a skit with the students.

A class interested in youth and its problems decided that one of the chief needs of youth in Parker District was work. Consequently they organized a junior employment bureau. They enrolled pupils for part-time jobs. They contacted employers. They worked with an adult community council. They have placed fellow students in part-time jobs.

An eighth grade class was studying home and family life. During the unit each pupil undertook to do something to improve his own home.

These pupils rearranged pictures and furniture, made slip covers, curtains and drapes, repaired and installed electric sockets and worked out color schemes. In addition to the physical improvement of homes, emphasis was also placed upon ways of improving family relations in the home and on the acceptance of home responsibilities by all members of the family.

One of the most interesting examples of resource utilization in the teaching-learning process, which renders a valuable community service in the process, is the famous Maternity Shelter. This is directed by graduate nurses and was made possible through the cooperation of various civic groups. The Maternity Shelter provides hospitalization for mothers of low income families. It provides pre-natal and post-natal care of the mothers and adequate facilities for the safe delivery of babies, and instructional programs in child care.

The Maternity Shelter and the Baby Wing are used as laboratories by pupils in classes studying child care. These classes are taught by graduate nurses and include such studies as "Infant Care," "Marriage Preparation," "Health and the Family Group," and "Health and the Community." The babies in the Shelter furnish an opportunity for the students to obtain practice in caring for infants and young children. Students gain practice in bathing, dressing, and preparing food, and in taking general care of small children.

These activities are carried on in connection with the senior girls' study in child care. In a study of "Health and the Family Group," another part of their study of child care, class activities are based on the course of study outlined in the Red Cross Home Nursing Manual. This

outline is supplemented by practical demonstrations of home nursing techniques.[8]

Another interesting project has resulted from a study by senior high students on "Health and the Community." Practical work was carried out in two elementary schools.

> During the past year, the pupils' study of "Health and the Community" was put to use through work that the pupils did in two of our elementary schools, Woodside and City View. During this study, high school pupils were trained, during instructional and observation periods conducted in the Maternity Shelter, to recognize symptoms of ill health, to use the Snellen Chart for testing vision, to take weight and height, to observe the skin, hair, teeth, tonsils, and posture for evidence of abnormalities. Following this period of preparation, the pupils in the class were grouped into squads and they planned and carried out physical examinations of the children in the two elementary schools. One hundred fifty pupils were examined at City View and 220 pupils at Woodside. The pupil examiners listed their findings on cards and the more obvious defects were discussed with the child's teacher. As a result of this activity our pupils learned, through their study, and work with the elementary children, to recognize a normally healthy child and to recognize the more obvious physical and health defects of young children. In addition, their work in the elementary schools stimulated attention to these matters in the two schools in which they worked.[9]

The Parker District has received considerable attention for its varied program. However, a brief comment will be made on curriculum reconstruction. It was observed that as pupils entered high school in the eighth grade,[10] they needed help in orientation and articulation into the

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[8] Ibid., p. 33.

[9] Ibid.

[10] South Carolina high schools stopped at the eleventh grade at this time, hence many high schools included the eighth grade.

high school program. The schedule was arranged so that one teacher worked with a group of thirty eighth grade children during the entire school day. As this proved satisfactory, it became a feature for all eighth grade pupils. Teachers agree that this unbroken daily association allows the teacher an increased opportunity to learn the intellectual, physical and emotional life of each child, to know his home life and environment, and to help him plan school work that will fit his own individual needs and abilities.

This arrangement of the eighth grade classes has the additional advantage of flexibility in scheduling. Trips can be taken by the group without interfering with the work of other groups in the school and without the time limitations that would be involved if the pupils were responsible to other teachers in the school. Each pupil is studied individually and helped personally by the teacher throughout the year. By the time a pupil reaches the end of the eighth grade the teacher, pupil, and parents have worked out together a tentative program for the remainder of his high school course which comprehends his individual abilities and his plans for the future.

The block period or core class has long been part of the Parker system. It has centered on a combination of English and social science. It has had the general objectives of other core programs, and it is regarded as highly successful. It perhaps should be stated here that the flexibility of schedules and the variety of course offerings is largely responsible for the success of Parker District. This flexibility of the entire schedule has been most important. It has allowed the teachers to

adjust their plans, to work and plan with considerable freedom, which has been a highly important factor in the utilization of resources in the teaching-learning process in the Parker District.

Summary Report of Tentative Instrument

In the fourth chapter the tentative instrument was described. The results of the study in River Rouge, Michigan, on the basis of the tentative instrument, were described in the fifth chapter. The instrument has been applied in selected Southern schools, where seventeen survey forms were distributed. Of this number twelve were returned. The actual coverage is broader than might appear on the surface. In two cases, survey forms were filled out by the county supervisors, in two cases by teachers and supervisors, in all other cases they were filled out by principals. Therefore, they represent a rather comprehensive survey of the actual practices in the schools reporting.

In the following paragraphs a report will be given of the results. The report will be presented in five sections, each part representing one of the five categories around which the tentative instrument was constructed. In presenting this summary, emphasis will be placed upon areas of agreement and upon areas of disagreement.

Evaluation

The problem is to determine if there is a definite effort in schools for evaluation of resource utilization in the teaching-learning process. From the responses in the selected Southern schools, it is quite evident that evaluation is used. In none of the Southern schools

studied was their actual disagreement on the principles under evaluation. In no instance was the "No" column checked. In one item, under ways to evaluate resource-use activities, which was by anecdotal recordings of individual reactions, four said they followed this practice, while eight said they followed it in part. Under the same topic, testing factual information gained, six reported use of written examinations while six said they followed this in part. In all other instances there were more "Yes" answers than "In Part" answers. This adds to the conclusion that evaluation is accepted and practiced to a high degree in the selected Southern schools.

The areas of greatest agreement were the composite goals of resource-use activities. To a very high degree it was agreed that major goals were to develop habits, health habits especially; to develop attitudes and beliefs; to develop interests, especially in one's community; to acquire specific information; to develop skills, such as the ability to interview, the ability to observe with comprehension and understanding; to develop critical thinking; and to develop personal, social relations.

The four basic steps in evaluation stated in the tentative instrument received identical responses, seven "Yes" and five "In Part" replies. These steps were: define the goals, collect evidence of achievement, decide degree of present success, and draw references for future policy.

Under ways to evaluate resource-use activities, the most prevalent practice is to estimate changes in beliefs, interests, appreciations, and

social sensitivity by watching student reactions and analyzing statements made in class discussions. The next most prevalent practice is to appraise ability to apply generalizations by studying written reports.

On new items responded to only by the Southern schools, the item of greatest agreement was that evaluation should reveal the extent of enjoyment and feeling of the group regarding the project. This was followed by the expressed belief that evaluation instruments should be direct, simple and free of ambiguity, and by registration of a realistic practice whereby evaluation is on the basis of work done and changes which occurred while the work was in progress.

Basic Principles

What are the broad concepts which reflect educational planning based upon human growth and development and which recognize the operation of dynamic social forces in the community?

What are the broad concepts which apply to the utilization of resources in the teaching-learning process? What are the general and specific principles, methods and techniques which seem basic in this recent development?

As there are items of agreement and disagreement in this category, they will be considered separately. Areas of agreement will be reported first.

The highest degree of agreement is found in the concept that whatever the plan for tapping resources, teachers must be convinced that the plan is good and that they can use it for better teaching. There is unanimous agreement on this point. The concept that education

is inherently a social process, which needs to be set within the framework of first hand acquaintance with significant aspects of the learner's physical, biological, and social environment, is widely accepted. The teachers accept the idea that "Better schools can make better communities and in helping to create better schools the adults of a community can better themselves." The schools reporting are flexible, are sensitive to new developments, and are continually readjusting their programs.

There is evident concern for good community relations, and a very strong belief that the school needs community support, that it needs advocates, both lay and professional, who are willing to work for America's ideals. In this connection it is reported that schools make a practice of discussing school problems with laymen in language intelligible to laymen. It is recognized that public understanding of modern schools needs to be developed. In practice, the development of public understanding is based upon something specific and concrete as a point of reference. It is believed that every school system and nearly every teacher is performing some functions in a superior manner, and that these can and must be used as evidence of the good work schools are doing. School administrators have accepted the principle that one of their major functions is to maintain a continuous program promoting public understanding, which is broader and more basic than a "public relations plan."

Teachers believe that their concept of education is broad. They are aware of the richness and depth that will enhance their teaching and the pupils' learning because they know the community and use its available resources in their work. They believe that all available resources

for the education of youth should be utilized, and that the school does assume particular responsibility to see that a balanced program is provided for each youngster. To a high degree they follow the principle that the school should use the community as a living laboratory of civic and personal life. A supporting item to this is acceptance of the proposition that in the use of community resources, schools should stress the organic relationship between each individual student's life and the functioning of the surrounding social processes. Perhaps of greatest significance is acceptance of the principle that there should be involvement of community agencies, of community leaders, and study of natural resources in the teaching-learning process. The principle of cooperation between school and community agencies is highly acceptable. This is held to be most necessary, as expressed by the belief that the place given to education by the public, and public agencies, is crucial to America's future. It is believed that cooperation between school and community is becoming a significant force in democratic life. The idea is quite prevalent that utilization of resources in the school, through community cooperation, does not result in benefit to the school and its pupils alone. The principle is highly accepted that all benefit when the school discovers, develops, and utilizes resources. It is further believed that the schools have accepted a degree of responsibility along with other cultural agencies, to work for a better understanding of the potentialities and limitation in the resources of the region.

There is a high degree of agreement that leadership is a function of all teachers, passing alternately and concurrently from one to another

in accordance with their ability to make distinctive contributions. There is agreement on the principle that the teacher holds the most pivotal position for making use of community resources in the instructional program. However, while recognition of the leadership function of teachers is high, and while there is unanimous agreement that teachers must be convinced that a plan for resource utilization is good and that they can use it for better teaching, there are some reservations about the pivotal positions of the teacher. This may be due to the fact that, largely, administrators and supervisors responded for the selected Southern schools.

There is agreement that a good school does not stand apart from the life of its community, recognizing that the two are woven together by human values and common interests. A corollary proposition accepted is that bringing the world and its life into the classroom is teaching at its best. These concepts form the background for the principle that if a school is to be effective it must be ready to move out into the community proper to carry out its function, or else resort to artificial devices and incur the danger of believing only artificial results. This belief is supported by acceptance of the principle that the school staff is not adequately representative of the totality of expertness which functions in the community. In recognition of this situation, it is agreed that schools are utilizing lay people with special talents, skills, knowledges, accomplishments, and leadership as sources of expertness which the teacher or school does not symbolize.

The schools report that they do ask for help from citizens, but

that they do not always know what help is available or how to use it. They recognize that active lay participation in developing school policies is one of the most effective ways to bring the whole community to realize it has a stake in the total educational enterprise. In recognition of the contribution lay people can make in planning for more effective education, and in contributing to the realization of these plans, the schools are developing the machinery which will enable them to draw much of the knowledge and energy of the community into the teaching-learning process.

In the utilization of the community as a living laboratory for youth, it is agreed that three major objectives are to establish incentives to democratic social improvement, to develop an understanding of the changing culture, and to increase personal competence in community participation and leadership. Stated simply, these are social motivation, social comprehension, and social skills.

Fourteen items were added to the tentative instrument after the study had been made in River Rouge. Consequently, only the Southern schools responded to these. Areas of agreement in the additional items are now presented.

There is very high agreement that the principal and teachers must establish clearly the philosophy that is to govern the development of the school's total program. This is regarded as being highly important to a resource utilization program.

There is recognition of the extensive nature of community life, which is the sum total of many agencies, individuals, and institutions; of these, the home and the school continue to be the most important for

education.

Definite advantages are seen for the core curriculum. There is a very large measure of agreement that where the core curriculum is in operation there is sufficient flexibility to allow for more extensive field trips than is generally possible in the more formally organized schools.

It is recognized, of course, that schools depend upon the community for financial support which makes them possible. However, the principle is accepted to a very high degree that there are many other ways in which the community can and should support the schools.

There is no major disagreement registered. What disagreement there is centers around the school and community relations and utilization of resources. In reply to the principle, in working with the community, initiative must come from the school, there were five "Yes" replies and six "In Part" replies. Closely related is the item that, in utilization of resources, leadership may arise either from lay or educational personnel; the response to this item was the same. Does the situation ever arise where the laymen will force the resources of the community upon the schools to create improvement? Five replied that it did, and five replied "In Part." Are laymen an integral part of groups and committees working on curriculum revision, and should they be an integral part? The response indicated five "Yes," one "No," and five "In Part" replies.

It seems that this area is highly important to resource utilization in the teaching-learning process. It is in an evolving stage now.

The signs are encouraging but it is obvious that school leaders and community leaders need to work out the problem of their relationships with wisdom, tolerance, and concern for the growth of the community.

Is it the function of education to change the culture, or is the school a reflection of its culture, part of the warp and woof? Four respondents thought it was the function of education to change the culture, seven replied that it was "In Part." There were no clear-cut expressions that education should change the culture.

Among the fourteen items added after the River Rouge study, there is more disagreement. The greatest disagreement concerned the popular concept of the use of community resources. The idea that going out of the school into the field for the study of some situation in its natural setting constitutes the use of community resources is accepted in only three cases. In other words, the Southern schools have a much broader concept of the use of community resources than is generally prevalent.

Is the principle accepted that the most effective means of interpreting the needs of the schools is through the commanding voice of an organization speaking for the whole organized community (such as a coordinating community council)? Evidently not, for there are three "Yes" replies, three "No" replies, and five "In Part" replies.

In view of the fact that education is now conceded to be more inclusive than the school's formal curriculum alone, is it proper to relate the success of the school program to the degree with which it is geared to fill the gaps in the community's over-all youth program? Four respondents said "Yes," two said "No," and four replied "In Part."

The theory that the universal appeal of serving youth, together with the variety of interesting and useful jobs to be done, attracts volunteers in large numbers is rejected. Only one respondent said "Yes," one said "No," and ten said "In Part."

The principle that any type of school can have well-planned and extensive field trips is questioned. It seems apparent that there is a feeling that the type of school is important to resource utilization in the teaching-learning process.

Operating Practices

What are the ways and means of operation in getting at the resources and in making them a vital part of the teaching-learning process? Among the Southern schools there is a high degree of agreement on operating practices. In only two instances are there two "No" replies. In only nine instances are there single "No" replies. There are six "No" replies to a highly controversial item, to register the single instance of outright rejection of the principles proposed in this category. As there are seventy-four items, this seems to indicate a very high degree of common practices operating in the Southern schools studied. Areas of agreement will be presented first.

There is a high rate of agreement that, as an operating principle, schools should utilize all appropriate techniques for effectively relating the school with the community.

Certain procedures in the guidance or direction of pupils operate to a great extent. Teachers guide pupils into situations where they discover interrelationships between subject matter fields as they relate to

the use of community resources. Also, pupils are encouraged to discover and make extensive use of the services of other agencies. As part of this guidance, a sequential development of student experiences throughout each year is planned in the use of community resources in the teaching-learning process. This planning is important if student experiences in the community are to be functionally related with both prior and subsequent experiences of the pupil.

The area of school and community relationships has several items of agreement. To a very high degree, the practice of cooperation is stressed. The school attempts to improve the program of established services and agencies, rather than to innovate new ones. The school works for thorough agreement as to desirable aims of community life, of the place and function of the home, the school, and each agency of the community. In cooperative planning, the process is regarded as evolutionary, starting with the existing level of know-how in group planning and group purposing, and moving forward in gradual stages.

In developing cooperative working relations to release community resources, professional leadership is provided by the school. As an actual practice, active lay participation in developing school policies has contributed to the total program and has also been effective in bringing the community to the realization that it has a stake in the whole educational enterprise. In recognition of the principle that resource utilization is reciprocal, the schools share with other agencies the responsibility for providing opportunities for appropriate learning activities for all members of the community.

As resource-use schools are involved with their communities, are, in fact, an integral part of their communities, the school is concerned with human relations. At many times the school must guide and direct lay persons who would contribute their services. The principle is widely accepted and operates to a high degree that in a very real sense teachers and administrators have become skilled observers and guides of human behavior. The manner in which a group of laymen and teachers function is considered quite important. The principle is accepted that, if the full creative power of human resources is to be released in any group situation, a congenial emotional climate, a permissive atmosphere must exist so that the neophyte in the group will feel as free to make his contribution as will the expert or status leader.

The maintenance of communication is highly regarded. This includes two-way communication between administration and staff, between the teacher and pupil, and between school and community. It is agreed that educators must reach their public, and must provide them with sufficient understanding of what a modern education program includes, for the science of education has moved far ahead of the popular concept of education. In interpreting the local educational program to the community for the purpose of tapping resources, symbols used are those which belong to the layman. It is agreed that one of the steps in eliciting resources and services of the community is for the school to interpret the local educational program to the community.

To a very high degree it is agreed that administration and supervision should exert special efforts to arouse teachers to an awareness of

the need for and the value of resource use. The status of teacher tenure is an important factor. A good resource-use program to enrich and make functional the learning situation cannot be maintained if there is a high rate of teacher turnover, for this weakens the continuity and coordination of the program. To a high degree administration provides the opportunity for teachers to visit other schools to observe master teachers and learn new methods and techniques. To the same high degree, administration provides more assistance to those teachers who are responsible for exploring, coordinating, and utilizing resources. All teachers are briefed on the techniques for visiting community agencies and institutions for instructional purposes with stress upon minimum interference with the general routine of the establishment. When there is no central office, no service center for resource utilization, the administration makes certain that each teacher knows the sources of information concerning natural, human, and social resources of the community.

The internal operation of the school constitutes another broad area. To a high degree, proper adjustments are made with the principal's office and with the other teachers involved when pupils are taken into the community. Teachers themselves are a key resource. An intelligent use of all of their abilities, skills, and knowledges improves the teaching-learning process. To a very high degree time is provided in the daily schedule for teachers to take pupils into the community for study purposes. There is a high degree of coordinated effort by the staff to give unity and direction to the resource-use projects, and for consideration of the problem involved. Efforts are made to train teachers to know how to use

their contacts with and membership in community organizations to generate the involvement of their resources where applicable to school improvement.

There are also isolated areas of disagreement. Only two seem to be related.

Should the school consider controversial issues, and utilize literature and speakers provided by labor, management, and political parties? Two replies say "Yes," one says "No," and eight say "In Part." Should secondary pupils be permitted to discuss in class the strengths and weaknesses of community leaders as they appear in assembly programs or in classes? Seven replies said "Yes," one said "No," and two said "In Part."

Evidently the Southern schools are not using the latest, best technology of communication to a high degree in presenting a picture of all school activities and illustrating graphically the need for the best utilization of available resources.

There is some disagreement with the concept that the use of community resources will necessitate changes in some of the techniques and practices of administrators and supervisors. While seven agree with the statement, two disagree, and two reply "In Part."

There is disagreement with the concept that the study of the area of community resources should be integrated with existing organized subject matter fields rather than set up as a new subject matter field. Of twelve responses, two said "No," and two said "In Part."

There is mild disagreement concerning initiation of projects for resource utilization. There is disagreement with the concept that it must come from school personnel, especially from teachers.

The real disagreement concerns solicitation of funds from community leaders and organizations for school purposes. It is felt that all finances must come from regular tax sources. Three say they do solicit funds for special purposes, six say they do not, while two say "In Part." In view of the many projects such as raising funds for bands, for football stadiums, for special equipment, this seems inconsistent.

Twenty additional items, not included originally, were submitted to the selected Southern schools. There were areas of agreement and disagreement. The areas of agreement will be presented first.

The Southern schools reported extensive use of resources as part of the learning living laboratory. They agreed that these services could not be duplicated if their budgets were quadrupled. To a high degree, teachers and administrators initiate programs for locating resource persons and demonstrate a need for this type of help such people can render.

It is agreed that schools need community facilities and resources to make youth occupationally competent, and agreed that occupational competence has always been a necessity for survival.

The field trip is not confined to the local community. At times it involves travel some distance from town and may vary in time from a few hours to several days or weeks. It may be a simple single purpose project, or it may be long, involved and complex. It is agreed that specific subjects may be greatly enriched by use of community resources within their special fields.

In visitation in the community there are at least three ways or types of visits; these are advisory, vocational visits, and cultural visits.

A new term is the "reverse field trip." It is agreed that in many cases children may not be deprived of all the advantages of field trips simply because it is not possible for them to leave the classroom. Often it is possible for the field trip to come to the classroom, and this reversal of customary procedure is quite effective. The simplest type of "reverse field trip" is bringing a resource person to class. Other ways are the use of tape recordings bringing lectures, programs, unusual exhibits, models, and interesting collections.

It is agreed that small discussion groups with resource persons are very effective, for this gives pupils the feeling of having known the speaker intimately and the way of life he represents. The schools report that they have a resource file in a central location, with some staff member responsible for organizing it and keeping it current. To a considerable extent, they locate resource persons by looking at school records, under the heading of occupation of father and occupation of mother. To demonstrate the need that pupils have for resource persons, pupil surveys are conducted to find out how many have never seen a judge, a sculptor, the mayor, a famous singer, an explorer, a painter, and the like.

The following areas of disagreement were found. When need arises for work in the library, the science laboratory, or field work, should the classroom be abandoned temporarily for these purposes? Five replied "Yes," four replied "No," and two said "In Part."

Do field trips present such serious difficulties to teachers that this is the reason they are not more prevalent? Four replied "Yes," one replied "No," and six replied "In Part."

Is television used as a "reverse field trip" by borrowing sets for important events? Eight said "Yes," one replied "No," and two replied "In Part."

Do schools follow the practice of locating resource persons by letting students develop a parent resource file from a questionnaire sent to all parents? Six respondents said "Yes," two replied "No," and three replied "In Part."

Teaching Techniques

The problem is to determine what teaching techniques are used in the utilization of resources in the teaching-learning process. There is no evidence of disagreement in any of the original items. A high rate of agreement is found in the item, "Aid pupils to gain understanding of their responsibility for improvement of local community and society." Unanimous agreement was found in the items, "Teacher stresses the value of cooperation in community planning," and "Teacher encourages pupils to state their views concerning existing situations and conditions in the community as a means for determining the extent of comprehension of the problems involved." Next in order are the following: "Teacher guides pupils into situations where they discover interrelationship between subject matter fields as they relate to the use of community resources." Pictorial and graphic illustrations of aspects of the community are used for more effective learning. Assignments are varied in classroom and on field trips according to the abilities and interests of the learners, and teacher utilizes knowledges and skills of other teachers to facilitate instruction in special areas.

On the additional items submitted to the Southern schools only, there was high agreement. Unanimous agreement was registered in the following: In selecting problems for study of resources, one criterion should be that they provide opportunities to learn the community, its potentialities, and limitations; reading may be for information, to verify facts, or other purposes; films, slides and film strips are used in clarifying concepts involving practices or terminology; class discussion clarifies goals and concepts, provides opportunity to arrive at a unified purpose, develops understandings and insights, and is a way of working involving participation in democratic group process.

Other items of agreement included the following: joint examination of the experience by teachers and pupils; a special listing of important principles learned or used; pupils list important things done, which reveals their concepts as to relative importance, discloses their attitudes, opinions and understandings.

Organizational Principles

What type of organization is favorable to the utilization of resources in the teaching-learning process? What are the principles and procedures of organization which operate in resource-use schools? Those areas of agreement will be presented first, followed by the areas of disagreement.

In analyzing the functions of a resource utilization center, highest agreement is reached on the point that it will act as an agency with responsibility to the school and community. At its best, this center, or materials bureau, will offer three major services: acting as a clearing

house, as a resource library, and as an instructional agency. It is agreed that the center, or some type of organization performing similar functions, will discover additional community resources, that it will promote utilization of resources in the teaching-learning process by distributing lists of possible projects, that it will assist with community projects, help inexperienced teachers, and provide expert advice to community agencies in their own educational efforts and programs.

A coordinating community council, or something very similar, seems to exist in the Southern schools studied. Three replied that they do have one, seven replied that they have one in part, and no respondents answered "No" to the question. Regarding the participation of school people in the coordinating council, greatest agreement was reached on two items: that they provide leadership and cooperate extensively to keep the council a potent educational force in the community, and that they maintain democratic values of group discussion, group planning and encourage objective thinking about controversial issues. To a lesser degree, school people help sensitize the council members to the needs, interests and problems of youth.

There is agreement that personal contact is essential in cultivating community resources. It is also agreed that all personnel phases of resource-use plans, and especially the use of persons as resources, must be carried out in a highly intelligent manner. Contacts with community leaders or community agencies whose services are sought in the instructional program should be made by, or with, the approval of the principal. There should be considerable participation by teachers and pupils in the

selection of agencies and leaders whose services are to be utilized. The school should possess specific information concerning the function and services of special and related educational agencies. These agencies are used extensively when their social and material resources can contribute to the realization of the aims of education. In utilization of resources, student tours, visits, all manifestations of resource use are carefully organized regarding the time involved and the derivation of maximum benefits.

The organization must be flexible rather than static. It is agreed that flexibility must be maintained, that the school responds to the dynamics of its community, and society adjusts its program to local needs discarding the obsolete and providing the new.

Areas of disagreement are few in number. The materials bureau, or community service center, evidently does not coordinate the entire school program in relation to the utilization of resources.

Two items involving human relations were not accepted. In answer to a statement that teachers guide the coordinating council in using evaluative procedures, six replied "Yes," two replied "No," and two replied "In Part." In answer to the statement that, in order to make the best use of resources and integrate them into the curriculum and into the lives of the students, the school assumes a leadership role in relation to adults, there were six affirmative replies, two negative replies, and three "In Part" replies.

Finally, there was disagreement with the idea that "some energetic people from the community must come in at the outset to advise, search for

talent, and widen the circle of understanding, only three reported this practice, two said it did not operate, while six replied "In Part."

There were fourteen additional items to the original list. The rate of agreement was high, but there were three items of disagreement.

Among the areas of agreement was the unanimous belief that some member of the staff should understand the basic research techniques for studying the school community.

The plan of organization for field trips showed high agreement. It was agreed that the simplest field trip has for its main purpose the identification of the object observed. The next stage above identification is for the purpose of comprehending some of the functions of the agency or institution visited. The third stage is extensive in purpose. It is complex and varied, and goes beyond functions.

It is agreed that a true community council is infinitely more effective in gaining public attention and support than an occasional news release by the school, or a resolution by the Parent-Teacher Association.

Disagreement is registered concerning a technique for resource utilization. An item stating that a central directory of local youth services to facilitate the referral of health, welfare, and behavior problem cases between agencies is an excellent technique was rejected in two cases. Eight accepted the idea, while one replied "In Part."

It was agreed that motivating factors which initiate the establishment of a community council frequently dictate what facets of the program will be given first consideration. Four accepted the concept, two said

"No," and six said "In Part."

There is disagreement with the concept of a faculty committee. The concept is that a faculty committee, composed of every faculty member who wishes to bring about a close relation between his particular course or subject area and the community is a better plan for achieving community cooperation than that of having a single staff member arrange all the coordination. There were seven "Yes" replies and five "No" replies to the question.

CHAPTER VII

LIST OF GENERALIZATIONS SELECTED BY THE COOPERATING EDUCATORS

In the process of carrying out this study, 117 survey forms, as described in the fourth chapter, were submitted to teachers, administrators and supervisors in twenty schools in six states. Of this number, one hundred were returned and were usable. The complete results of the study, showing the total responses to each item in the instrument, have been tabulated and are shown in the table in Appendix B.

As a basis for determining which items should be selected for the final list, a criterion was set up. Items selected must have been accepted as valid by a total by eighty respondents. As there were one hundred respondents, this is the equivalent of 80 percent agreement. It is considered that this criterion is indicative of a degree of acceptance satisfactory for the purpose of this study.[1]

This criterion precludes inclusion of any of the additional sixty-one items added.

The List of Generalizations

The generalizations which compose this list came from the various sources and have been identified by the teachers, super-

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[1]See Appendix B for a tabulation of the results obtained on the 192 items included in the original survey form; also for tabulations of the additional sixty-one items submitted to the selected Southern schools on the revised list of 253 items.

visors and administrators as being applicable to the instructional program in this school. The original list of 192 generalizations from which this list of 45 generalizations has been selected may be found in Appendix B. These generalizations will be presented by number in their respective categories.

Evaluation

1. Goals are defined: Teachers decide exactly what they want to accomplish — what specific understandings, attitudes, and skills they wish to achieve through the project in hand.

2. The most desirable goal in resource utilization is to develop attitudes and beliefs.

3. The second major goal is to develop personal-social relations; a feeling of belonging; a desire to contribute one's share.

4. The third major goal is to develop interests; interest in one's community and the major forces operating therein.

5. The development of worthwhile, constructive habits is a major goal.

Basic Principles

6. Whatever the plan for tapping resources, teachers must be convinced that the plan is good and that they can use it for better teaching.

7. Better schools can make better communities, and in helping to create better schools the adults of a community can better themselves.

8. When a school discovers, develops and uses community resources, students benefit and the community benefits.

9. The school needs to be flexible and must continually readjust its program.

10. Education needs advocates, both lay and professional, who are willing to work for America's ideals and help the schools make better use of resources in the instructional program.

11. No good school can stand apart from the life of the community, for the two are woven together by human values and common interests.

12. The good resource-use teacher is community minded, has a working knowledge of school and community problems, understands the broader social functions and relationships of the school teacher in society, and cooperates with and uses the various educational agencies of the community, county and region.

13. It is the joint responsibility of the school and other cultural agencies of the community to work for a better understanding of the potentialities and the limitations in the rerources of the region they serve.

14. Explorations, field trips, tours in the community, and the utilization of persons and agencies in the classroom, while recognized as vital aids to study, must not become substitutes for it. The use of resources is supplementary rather than substitutionary.

15. Out of the school program that will be responsive to community needs should come cooperation between the school and its

community that will become a significant force in democratic life.

16. Leadership is a function of all teachers passing alternately and concurrently from one to another in accordance with his or her ability.

17. In discussing school problems with laymen, it should be conducted in language intelligible to laymen.

18. Public understanding of modern schools cannot be developed in the abstract alone; it must have something concrete and specific for reference. Every school system and nearly every teacher is performing some function in a superior manner. These can and must be used as evidence of the good that schools can do.

Operating Practices

19. Schools should utilize all appropriate techniques for effectively relating the school with the community; such as first-hand experience with reality in the form of resources, field trips and source person.

20. Graphic representations of reality, such as audio-visual aids, should be utilized to relate the school to the community.

21. Documentary materials, representing symbols of reality, should be utilized.

22. The educational adaptability of a community can be greatly enhanced by the promotion of a closer working relationship between the public and the educational system.

23. Communication must be established between the administration and the staff, from teacher to teacher, between teacher and pupil; from the school to the community, and from the community to the school.

24. In the utilization of resources, for instructional purposes, there are three major levels of culture to be studied in every community: material culture (geographic factors, plus the things people have made or used); institutional culture (the mass habits or culture of the people; and, the psychological culture (the motivating beliefs of the people).

25. The status of teacher-tenure is an important factor. A good resource-use program for school improvement cannot be maintained if there is a high rate of teacher turn-over; a high rate of teacher-retention is necessary to give continuity, unity and coordination to the program.

26. There should be deliberate planning by teachers, administrators, boards of education, and the public towards clear objectives determined by laymen and educators.

27. In a very real sense, teachers and administrators must become skilled observers and guides of human behavior.

28. The school should be sufficiently flexible continually to readjust its program in the light of the changing services of other community agencies.

Validity: the status or fact of being valid: soundness.

Validate: to test or prove the validity of: to confirm.

29. Teachers should know how to use their contacts with and membership in community organizations to the involvement of resources where applicable to school improvement.

30. It is imperative to get the community and all staff members to realize that the enterprising teacher is not putting on a show or wasting pupils' time when she takes a group into the community for study.

31. When pupils are taken into the community for study purposes proper adjustments should be made with the principal's office and with other teachers involved.

32. Staff members in strategic positions, or those who have developed strong contacts, should be used to approach community leaders to gain their aid in school projects, and to influence community leaders to make resources available for instructional purposes.

33. Schools should encourage pupils to discover and make extensive use of the services of other educative agencies.

Teaching Techniques

34. The utilization of resources aids pupils to gain understanding of their responsibility for improvement of local community and society.

35. Through the utilization of resources pupils are aided in correcting misconceptions concerning agencies and individuals in the community.

36. Community resources are used to stress the value of cooperation in community planning.

37. Teachers use pictorial and graphic illustrations of aspects of the community for more effective learning.

38. Pupils are guided into situations where they discover inter-relationships between subject matter fields as they relate to the use of community resources.

39. Teachers vary assignments in classroom and on field trips according to the abilities and interests of the learners.

40. Teachers utilize the knowledge and skills of other teachers on the staff to facilitate instruction in special areas.

Organization of the School

41. A resource center or other appropriate division in the school should be responsible for maintaining good public relations with other agencies.

42. Provision should be made in the school organization to centralize responsibility for effective and balanced use of community resources.

43. In cultivating community resources, personal contact is essential and must be provided for in the organization.

44. All personnel phases of resource-use plans, and especially in the use of persons as resources, must be carried out in a highly intelligent manner.

45. Student tours, visits, all projects utilizing resources, must be carefully organized from the standpoint of economy of time and efficiency of learning.

Other Significant Generalizations

Certain generalizations of apparent merit, highly regarded by the responding educators, but failing to meet the criterion will be mentioned in the following list:

1. Estimating changes in beliefs, interests, appreciations, and social sensitivity by watching student reactions and analyzing statements made in class discussions, is desired.
2. Estimating the value of resource utilization by factual information gained, usually by written test, is desired.
3. Resource utilization makes a significant contribution to the teaching-learning process.
4. Good community relations, the maintenance of communications between school and community, flexibility of program, and democratic leadership in the school and community are essential to resource utilization.
5. The teacher is the most important element in the process of resource utilization.
6. One of the criteria for selecting problem needs for study should be that the project should provide opportunities to learn the community, its potentialities, limitations and problems.
7. A true community council is infinitely more effective in gaining public attention and support than an occasional news release by the school or a Parent-Teacher Association resolution.

8. Schools depend upon the community for the financial support which makes them possible, but there are many other ways in which the community can and should support the schools.

9. The school must be skillful in human relations: it must guide and direct lay persons who would contribute their services.

10. The internal operation of the school is fundamental to a good program of resource utilization in the teaching-learning process.

11. Some type of a resource center should be included in the school organization to perform these essential functions. These functions are: to provide a resource library, to act as a central clearing house or control tower, and to provide teacher instruction and training in resource utilization.

Rejected Generalizations

Certain items were rejected by the respondents in this study. Items were considered rejected when the total number of "yes" replies was less than the combined total of "no" and "in part" replies.

Five rejections seem worthy of consideration. First, at this point, coordinating community councils have not been established to any significant extent. Second, the concept that community coordination is the fundamental key to success in instructional programs involving use of community resources is not accepted. Third, the solici-

tation of funds for any phase of the school program (outside the regular tax-supported channels) is considered improper. Fourth, the discussion of controversial issues, and the use of speakers, and literature provided by labor, management and political parties is rejected as a good practice. Fifth, the concept and the practice of utilizing laymen as an integral part of groups and committees working on curriculum revision and development is rejected.

Summary

The list of the forty-five generalizations pertaining to resource utilization, selected as valid by the one hundred cooperating educators, has been presented in this chapter. Examples of generalizations rejected by the cooperating educators has been included as a part of the treatment of data. A brief list of generalizations of apparent merit which failed to meet the criterion has been set forth. Evidence from research, and from observation of the types of programs described in the representative schools, indicates the value of these generalizations which were rated favorably by a high ratio of respondents.

CHAPTER VIII

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of the present study has been, as stated at the outset, (1) to discover, (2) to analyze, identify and in a measure validate generalizations, (3) to draw up and present a list of generalizations on resource utilization, and (4) to describe good practices on resource utilization observed in the schools cooperating in the study. This has been accomplished and reported. In searching for generalizations, a careful examination of the historical background of resource utilization, and of current trends, emphases and needs in resource utilization has been conducted. This has disclosed various factors in the development of resource utilization, has shown the pattern of the movement, and has indicated its use as an instrument for improving the teaching-learning process.

Conclusions

For the most part, there has been a steadily increasing use of resources in the teaching-learning process, since its inception, as a definite part of the school program.

A school-wide committee for the promotion of resource utilization can do much to further its integration into the curriculum. Such a committee should be working toward the establishment of a

permanent resource center in the school.

Education has advanced to a point where more is known about what should be provided for children in the educative process. When schools are criticized for not providing an adequate program, they insist it is because they lack the finances, the staff and the equipment. By discovering available resources and utilizing them, schools can make important gains in providing the total program which educators believe should be offered to the students.

If two schools which are comparable in most respects vary significantly in the excellence of total program provided, in most cases the explanation will very likely be that one of the schools is utilizing community resources to enrich and strengthen its program.

Resource utilization in the teaching-learning process is applicable in all subject areas and in schools of all sizes and types. Resources are used in all major subject matter fields. They are especially adaptable to the type of situation where the core curriculum is used.

The prevailing practice in the internal organization of the schools places responsibility for resource utilization upon administration, supervision and staff. Responsibility is shared. Cooperation by all and coordination of effort are essential to the process.

The value of resource utilization has been recognized. The increasing use of resources in the instructional program is tacit admission of its value.

The common practice, in most cases, of making resource

utilization a cooperative undertaking of teacher and pupils has brought out one of its advantages. This is the aid it renders in developing a cooperative spirit, in developing skills in group planning, group purposing and group action. It has aided in developing personal responsibility and group responsibility.

Resource utilization is an important aid to build up factual information. It will help bring increased knowledge and understanding in the subject-matter fields. It takes advantage of the fact that people remember longest what they do, remember next longest what they see, then what they say, and remember least of all what they hear.

In the glorious days of Athens, its great citizens took pride in being men of wisdom, men of knowledge, and men of action. Through the centuries men have taken much of "action" and "doing" out of education. The proper utilization of resources will restore balance to the educational program. Concrete experiences such as participation in community activities, study of the community, use of resources and resource persons in the classroom and throughout the entire school program will develop meaningful relations between school and the "world of work and reality." This will put "action" in its finest sense back into education.

The utilization of resources has multiple benefits. Teachers are stimulated to examine, evaluate and reconstruct their courses and methods; students acquire additional factual information, develop

broader attitudes and more accurate understandings; administration is stimulated to work more closely with the community, and to appraise the curriculum more critically; rich resources outside the school walls, representing a greater degree of the totality of expertness and knowledge in the community, are brought into the teaching-learning process, and the entire school program is improved.

If resource utilization is developed in an average school, which probably will lack adequate finances, staff, and equipment, it will make a real contribution to the teaching-learning process, and will help provide many auxiliary and coordinate services not presently available.

Utilization of resources in the teaching-learning process is not the final answer. It is not claimed that this is the panacea for all the troubles of education. However, it is a valuable asset. It is essential to a functional educational program. It will vitalize and enrich the instructional program.

Recommendations

It is recommended that a resource center or its equivalent be included as part of the organization of all schools. Great pains must be taken to prevent it from crystalizing its functions, from growing static and limiting rather than encouraging resource utilization. This will make possible the development of resource utilization on a systematic, school-wide basis. It will give scope, comprehension, balance, and direction to the resource utilization program, and will centralize responsibility. Also, it will be active

in developing good community relations, in aiding school-community cooperation, in discovering new resources and in tapping known community resources.

Leaders in teacher education should redouble their efforts to include training in community studies and in community cooperation, and should emphasize community-centered education. They should develop an awareness of the tremendous potential for education existent in community resources. They should emphasize that a functional curriculum can be greatly aided by using community resources in various phases of the educational program. They should provide more adequate training in the methods and techniques for discovering, coordinating, and utilizing resources in the teaching-learning process.

Teachers in service, whenever and wherever possible, should likewise receive training in the above mentioned areas.

Administrators and supervisories should make special efforts to help change teacher attitudes from book-centered to child-centered and community-centered education. They should encourage and assist those teachers who are attempting to use resources. The broken front approach in curriculum reconstruction, and in adapting new methods, is recommended for this gradual conversion to an evolving step by step basis towards complete resource utilization in the school.

Lay groups can become a fine resource for interpreting the schools and the needs of youth to the community. They can aid greatly in the process of tapping additional resources needed to supplement

the regular school program. They can also interpret the community to the school, and help keep it dynamic and sensitive to the needs and development of the community.

It is especially recommended that schools develop, or assist in developing, a coordinating community council or its equivalent. Tapping each resource separately is not the answer. Only through coordinated effort of the various agencies of the community, with each contributing its special service, its knowledge of the youth involved, can all the needs and problems of youth be met in his struggle for personal and social adjustment.

It is recommended that schools develop channels whereby civic minded persons may contribute their talents, abilities, services and material resources to the educational program designed to serve the youth of the community.

It is recommended that the study of resources be extended and continued. It is recommended that a study be made of representative schools in each of the forty-eightstates. This will provide a more universel sampling. It may further the generalizations reported in this study. It may provide needed information regarding more of the successful programs and projects in resource utilization. It may reveal new generalizations, methods and techniques that may be used to advance the progress of resource utilization in the teaching-learning process.

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APPENDIX A

Experimental Questionnaire

QUESTIONNAIRE

Principles, Techniques, and Methods for Discovering, Organizing and Utilizing Available Resources in the Teaching-learning Process

Most schools agree that their programs could and should be improved. Most schools are cognisant of their own serious problems, which must be solved to bring about necessary and desired improvements. However, many schools, anxious to achieve desirable objectives, to implement recommendations based upon careful studies, believe that they need more staff, more equipment, more teaching aids, an expanded physical plant, etc., before they can accomplish many of their objectives. In brief, the schools feel that a lack of adequate resources is a crucial factor in their failure to meet the needs of their students and communities. The NEA News, October 5, 1951, says: "Our understaffed schools face an unprecedented period of shortage. Disaster is at hand. Everywhere, storm signals are flying."

The implication is clear: every school faces a great challenge, and all schools that have enjoyed successes in meeting their great challenges should share their techniques for tapping resources with others.

We have examples of schools that have literally pulled themselves up by their own bootstraps, by discovering, developing and utilizing available resources. W. K. McCharen provides some good examples in "Improving the Quality of Living."

The purpose of this questionnaire is to collect data that will reveal principles, methods, techniques, devices, factors, conditions, by which schools have discovered, developed, coordinated and utilized resources to improve, enrich and strengthen their programs. Wherever possible, examples should be provided.

Criteria

In listing principles, techniques, etc., please list only those that you have seen functioning or operating, or that you can vouch for from first hand information, or have gleaned from authoritative literature or research. It is important that we adopt a scientific attitude and present only that information that has a sound basis and has a reasonable expectation of success when applied in a practical situation. If we do this together we will help ourselves, our schools, our students and our communities.

Example of a Principle

> The school, through cooperation, should attempt to improve the programs of established services and agencies, making it clear that it has no intent to take over, but, rather, will act to lend aid or inspiration.

A large measure of inventiveness must be employed in adopting known techniques or developing new ones to meet the needs of the local situation.

Example of a Technique

> Provide the community with a successful experience in problem solving: A survey of local health conditions, a scrap drive, organizing a scout troop.

An excellent technique is to start with a simple, appealing project, and let the community experience success with a simple problem, before proceeding to more complex projects.

Example of a Condition

> The necessity for a specific staff member (teacher, administrator or supervisor) to take the initiative in analyzing and utilizing resources.

Example of a Device (something ingeniously designed)

A special project or special program, which dramatizes school and pupil needs, arouses the community, and taps resources not previously used. A school-community dental program, providing free examination, free fluorine treatment, and filling minor cavities. This service was rendered in the school, resulting in the donation of dental chair, cooperation of local dentists, and listing of agencies making available free treatment in hardship cases for major dental work.

Example of a Factor

A favorable factor would be good relations between school and community resulting in active community support.

Example of a Method

1. Tabulate and classify points of interest and value for field trips; keeping list current and circularize it to teachers with suggestions for specific classes and topics and resource units.

2. A continuous policy of maintaining good public relations, keeping the community informed constantly, as opposed to a sporadic method of public relations, resorted to only in case of emergency.

In answering this questionnaire, consult above examples of principles, techniques, conditions, devices, factors, and methods. Please list only those items which meet the criteria described on the preceding page. Brief examples will help, but are not essential. If you can list only one item, it will still be important. Any additional suggestions or formulas will be appreciated. Also, please feel free to criticize this questionnaire. If we can improve and refine the questionnaire, it will clarify our information and results.

The attached sheet on Resources is intended to expand your thinking. It is not a complete or exhaustive list. Additions will be welcome.

An extra sheet has been attached for you to list principles, techniques, conditions, devices, factors, and methods. Please use additional paper if necessary. This study is especially concerned with the first three items: principles, techniques, and methods.

RESOURCES

A Partial List by Category

I. Human

a. Local professional staff: all teachers, special teachers, department heads, supervisors, librarians, counselors, administrators, coaches.

b. Other school employees: secretaries, clerks, dietitians, engineers, custodians, business managers.

c. School board, school trustees, school lawyer, other.

d. Students, alumni, parents. Includes all persons receiving direct services from the school, such as adult education, special classes and special groups.

e. Laymen in the community possessing special skills, technical knowledge, spare time, leadership ability, other skills and abilities; training in education or special information about specific areas in education; training in conducting surveys, gathering data, analyzing date; ability and desire to explain and interpret the school to the community and help gain public support. Also, laymen with a sound background to suggest improvements and help formulate plans and policies.

II. Educational

The State Department of Education, state universities, state colleges, extension divisions, national, state, local and other educational organizations; national foundations, national commissions, research, publications, consultants, conferences, conventions, surveys, bulletins, United States Office of Education.

III. Organizations

Local teacher groups, chambers of commerce, labor unions, Kiwanis and other service clubs, women's clubs, churches, veterans' organizations, professional organizations, Council of Social Agencies, Parent Teacher Association, Future Farmers of America, Scouts, American Automobile Association (driver training).

IV. Governmental Agencies

Police, fire, water, health, and recreation departments; local and state branches United States Employment Service; social service and welfare, local and state park commissions, state conservation department, State Highway Commission, County Agent, Home Demonstration

Agent, United States Department of Agriculture, county and state health departments, public library, city or county planning commission, federal agencies: Census Bureau, Department of Labor, Department of Commerce, Forestry Service, and others.

V. Local Industry

Agriculture, manufacturing, processing, extractive, shipping, commercial, independent merchants, public utilities, services (automobile sales and service, plumbing, laundry, medical services, hotels). Survey of work experience potential for students and job placement.

VI. Communication

Radio, newspaper, cinema, special school releases, bulletins, and periodicals.

VII. Material Resources

School supplies, equipment, furniture, books, periodicals, pamphlets, instructional materials, teaching aids, audio-visual, resource units. School plant: classrooms, gymnasium, library, study halls, auditorium, band room, shops and laboratories, special rooms, consultation rooms. Civic center, recreation center, Y. M. C. A. buildings, equipment and materials available for school use.

VIII. Natural Resources

Mineral, soils, forests, waters, lakes, rivers, oceans (or gulf); wildlife, parks, recreation areas.

Principles:

Techniques:

Conditions:

Device:

Factor:

Method:

APPENDIX B

Survey Form with Tabulation of Replies by One Hundred Teachers and Administrators

The tables show results in River Rouge, results in the selected southern schools, and the totals for each of the 192 original items. Also shown are results from 12 selected southern schools in the additional items.

In the tables, R denotes River Rouge, S denotes Southern schools, and T denotes the total replies.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR FILLING OUT THE SURVEY FORM

Utilization of Resources to Improve the Total School Program

Survey form to determine which basic Principles, Methods, and Techniques, for the Discovery, Coordination and Utilization of Community Resources operate in public schools for the Improvement of the Total School Program.

In the following pages are the Principles, Methods, and Techniques, as extracted from research which are applicable in resource-utilization. Please check these as objectively as possible and indicate whether they:

(1) Operate in your school or school system
(2) Operate in part in your school or school system
(3) Do not operate in your school or school system.

Whenever pertinent, make any comments regarding these items as you check them.

If you are not certain regarding the actual operation of these principles, methods, and techniques in your school or school system, feel free to consult with other informed members of the staff who might have knowledge or ready access to information pertinent to this study.

	Yes			No			In Part		
	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.
I. EVALUATION: Is there a definite effort in your school for evaluation of resource utilization in the teaching-learning process? Do the following items apply in your school?									
A. Principle: There must be objective evaluation to insure that resource-use activities will be used effectively.									
Four Basic Steps in Evaluation									
1. Define the goals: Decide exactly what you want to accomplish—what specific understandings, attitudes, and skills you wish to achieve through the project in hand.	73	7	80	0	0	0	14	5	19
2. Collect evidence of achievement: Assemble all possible data indicating relative success and failure in achieving the goals as defined.	66	7	73	1	0	1	21	5	26
3. Decide degree of present success: Formulate conclusions, based upon the evidence, concerning the extent to which sought goals are actually being realized.	63	7	70	1	0	1	21	5	26
4. Draw inferences for future policy: Recognize implications of present success or failure for future activity; describe these implications in terms of adjusted or expanded purposes; return to Step 1 and go through all four steps again. Continue the whole process of evaluation as long as the project may last.	58	7	65	1	0	1	25	5	30
B. Composite Goals of Resource-use Activities									
1. To develop attitudes and beliefs: Appreciation of our resources and belief in conservation and intelligent use.	77	11	88	0	0	0	9	1	10
2. To develop interests: Interest in one's community and the major forces operating therein.	69	11	80	4	0	4	14	1	15
3. To develop appreciations: Beauty—scientific apparatus.	54	9	63	8	0	8	26	2	28
4. To develop habits: Health habits—drinking only pasteurized milk, regular exercise, personal cleanliness.	68	12	80	1	0	1	18	0	18
5. To acquire information: What important information required by the course might be mastered by this field trip, resource person, film?	66	11	77	2	0	2	19	1	20
6. To develop skills: Able to interview, to observe with comprehension.	66	11	77	2	0	2	19	1	20

	Yes			No			In Part		
	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.
7. To develop critical thinking.	58	10	68	3	0	3	25	2	27
8. To develop personal-social relations: Feeling of belonging; desire to contribute his share.	73	10	83	4	0	4	9	2	11
9. To develop social sensitivity: See the interrelationship between scientific processes and social welfare—see how industry may affect a community.	67	7	74	2	0	2	18	5	23
10. To develop a philosophy of life: Place a value on physical health—develop other values.	61	8	69	8	0	8	18	4	22
B. Ways to Evaluate Resource-use Activities									
1. Changes in personal-social relations: By anecdotal recording of individual reactions.	35	4	39	7	0	7	44	8	52
2. Estimate changes in beliefs, interests, appreciations, and social sensitivity by watching student reactions and analyzing statements made in class discussions.	55	8	63	4	0	4	29	4	33
3. Appraise ability to apply generalizations: By studying written reports.	37	7	44	9	0	9	46	5	45
4. Factual information: Tested by written examination.	54	6	60	7	0	7	24	6	30
5. Behavior changes: (Circle letters applicable in your case):									
(a) Attitude tests			39						
(b) Pre-tests and post-tests			36						
(c) Immediate tests on principles			23						
(d) Re-tests on principles			31						
6. Evaluation should reveal the extent of enjoyment and feeling of the group regarding the project.			10			0			2
7. Evaluation instruments should be direct, simple, free of ambiguity.			9			0			2
8. Evaluation should be on the basis of work done and changes which occurred while the work was in progress.			8			0			2
II. BASIC PRINCIPLES: Broad concepts, general, and specific, reflecting educational planning based upon human growth and development and recognition of dynamic social forces active in the school community.									
1. All available resources for the education of youth should be utilized, with the high school assuming particular responsibility for seeing that a balanced program is afforded each youngster.	65	9	74	7	0	7	13	3	16

	Yes			No			In Part		
	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.
2. Whatever the plan for tapping resources, teachers must be convinced that the plan is good and that they can use it for better teaching.	72	12	84	5	0	5	9	0	9
3. Teachers need a broader vision of education; they must become aware of the richness and depth that would enhance their teaching and the pupils' learning if they knew better the community in which they work, and used its available resources in their school work.	69	10	79	0	0	0	17	2	19
4. Schools using community resources should stress the organic relationship between each individual student's life and the functioning of the surrounding social processes.	64	9	73	10	0	10	13	3	16
5. Education itself is inherently a social process which cannot be realistic, vital and defensible unless its curricular program is set within the framework of a carefully considered, first-hand acquaintance with significant aspects of the learner's physical, biological, and social environment.	47	11	58	13	0	13	26	1	27
6. Better schools can make better communities, and in helping to create better schools the adults of a community can better themselves.	76	11	87	2	0	2	10	1	11
7. When a school discovers, develops, and uses community resources, students benefit and the community benefits.	74	9	83	1	0	1	12	3	15
8. Human resources hold the key; they determine the way the physical environment (natural resources) is used, and they determine the methods for organizing the social resources.	68	8	76	4	0	4	15	3	18
9. The potential capacity of a community is attainable only by developing patterns of wants, and skills among the people which release the full power of the human, natural and social resources at their disposal.	64	6	70	7	0	7	19	3	22
10. In working with the community, initiative must come from the school.	36	5	41	10	0	10	38	6	44
11. Practically all American communities need to develop a systematic plan that will make use of all human resources in their area.	57	9	66	7	0	7	19	1	20

	Yes			No			In Part		
	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.
12. If the school is to be most effective, it must be ready to move into the community proper to carry out its function, else it must resort to artificial devices and incur the danger of achieving only artificial results.	45	8	53	16	0	16	22	3	25
13. The school needs to be flexible and must continually readjust its program.	75	11	86	4	0	4	8	0	8
14. There is a need for the modern school to learn to use the community as a living laboratory and textbook of civic and personal life.	64	10	74	4	0	4	17	1	18
15. America's public schools are not nearly as good as professional leadership knows how to make them; they are not as good as enlightened parents wish them to be; and they are not as good as America's young people deserve and desire them.	46	8	54	11	0	11	27	3	30
16. The machinery must be created to enable a school system to draw knowledge and energy from an entire community.	64	7	71	4	0	4	18	3	21
17. Schools are asking for help from citizens, but they do not always know what help is available, or the best means of utilizing that help.	64	8	72	3	0	3	18	3	21
18. The place given to education will determine the role of America two decades hence. Education needs advocates, both lay and professional, who are willing to work for America's ideals.	75	10	85	2	1	3	9	1	10
19. Active lay participation in developing school policies is one of the most effective ways to bring the whole community to the realization that it has a stake in the whole educational enterprise.	61	8	69	7	0	7	18	3	21
20. The school should be sensitive to new developments, adjusting its program to them.	67	11	76	4	0	4	16	0	16
21. Today's teachers are tutors in human relations and group work for tomorrow's adult citizens.	68	7	75	2	0	2	15	4	19
22. The teachers hold the most pivotal positions in the educational scheme for making maximum use of community resources for improving the instructional program.	55	7	62	7	0	7	24	4	28
23. Public participation in local education has caused a significant change in the schools within the last five years.	42	6	48	21	0	21	21	4	25

	Yes			No			In Part		
	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.
24. There are three omnibus aims in the area of school-community relationships: Developing an understanding of the changing culture (social comprehensions)	62	8	70	3	0	3	19	2	21
25. Establishing incentives to democratic social improvement (social motivation)	66	10	76	5	0	5	12	1	13
26. Increasing personal competence in community participation and leadership (social skill)	67	7	74	1	0	1	15	3	18
27. Community resources are inseparably linked to the learning experiences of young people.	60	7	67	6	0	6	19	3	22
28. Bringing the world and its life into the classroom is teaching at its best.	66	8	74	0	0	0	19	3	22
29. If this community-emphasis, this resource-use program is to function properly and is to improve and strengthen the curriculum on a continuing basis, it must not be brought to the local school by a group of outside "experts"; it must evolve out of the local situation; furthermore, leadership should be developed on a broad basis, for if this is based on a small core of leaders, it will collapse when that leadership loses interest, or leaves the system.	58	7	65	5	0	5	22	3	25
30. It seems axiomatic that when people demonstrate leadership, the community thrusts all its tasks upon them. The problem then is to develop new leaders and discover potential leaders, which may be done by working young people and new people into leadership roles through an evolutionary process.	67	7	74	3	0	3	15	4	19
31. No good school can stand apart from the life of the community, for the two are woven together by human values and common interests.	78	9	87	1	0	1	5	2	7
32. The expanded use of community resources is aided by the growth of community competence in problem solving, and advances through a series of successful experiences.	64	6	70	3	0	3	18	5	23
33. The good teacher is community-minded; he has a working knowledge of school and community problems, he understands the broader social functions and relationships of the school teacher in society, and he cooperates with and uses the various educational agencies of the community, county, and region.	80	8	88	0	0	0	5	3	8

	Yes			No			In Part		
	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.
34. The school should be able to recognize leadership wherever it exists, and should accept the responsibility for helping promising citizens develop leadership qualities.	70	7	77	1	0	1	13	4	17
35. The great majority of teachers have not been sensitized to the need for utilization of resources in the instructional program.	39	7	46	16	0	16	30	2	32
36. In the utilization of resources, leadership may arise either from educational or lay personnel, and the situation may arise where laymen will force the resources of the community upon the school to create improvement.	50	5	55	10	0	10	27	5	32
37. The approach to the effective use of community resources for instructional purposes requires certain knowledges and skills not sufficiently emphasized in the professional training of teachers.	56	7	63	5	0	5	24	3	27
38. It is the joint responsibility of the school and other cultural agencies of the community to work for a better understanding of the potentialities and the limitations in the resources of the region they serve.	80	9	89	1	0	1	3	2	5
39. Explorations, field trips, tours in the community, and the utilization of persons and agencies in the classroom, while recognized as vital aids to study, must not become substitutes for it.	71	11	82	2	0	2	11	1	12
40. The use of the services of community agencies, of community leaders, and study of the natural resources constitutes one of the most effective sources by which the instructional program may be made more functional.	69	8	77	1	0	1	15	2	17
41. The use of community resources, in vocational subjects, has resulted in the kind of information, the understanding, the skill, and the acquisition of desirable practices that lead to vocational efficiency. As education is training for adult life, then the community can be used as a laboratory for training youth for self realization, civic responsibility, and desirable human relations.	66	6	72	2	2	4	17	3	20
42. When a school discovers, develops, and uses community resources, the students benefit and the whole community benefits.	72	10	82	1	0	1	11	1	12
43. Practical men and women everywhere in this country are beginning to realize that the time has come to strengthen the institution of public education as one of the first lines of defense in a struggle that appears likely to go on for a long time.	70	7	77	0	0	0	13	4	17

	Yes			No			In Part		
	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.
44. Out of the school program that will be responsive to community needs should come cooperation between the school and its community that will become a significant force in democratic life.	71	10	81	1	0	1	15	1	16
45. Laymen have been and should be an integral part of groups and committees working on curriculum revision and development.	42	5	47	14	1	15	29	5	34
46. While educators think of the school as initiating school-community programs to meet major problems, it should be recognized that the initiation might begin with a school related organization (PTA) and spread into the school and community, or it might begin in some agency (civic club, planning board, service club) and spread through the school and other community agencies.	56	7	63	3	0	3	26	4	30
47. If the school is to make use of such expertness as operates in the community itself, this involves recognition that the school staff is not adequately representative of the totality of expertness which functions in the community. This means utilizing lay people with special talents, skills, knowledges, accomplishments, leadership, as a source of expertness which the teacher or school could not symbolize.	62	8	70	8	0	8	15	3	18
48. Education needs advocates, both lay and professional, who are willing to work for America's ideals.	75	11	86	3	0	3	6	0	6
49. Leadership is a function of all teachers passing alternately and concurrently from one another, in accordance with his or her ability and interest to make distinctive contributions.	73	10	83	4	0	4	8	2	10
50. It is not the function of education to change the culture. The school is a reflection of its culture, it is part of the warp and woof; but it must keep up with the dynamics of its culture.	49	4	53	20	0	20	14	7	21
51. The visions and attitudes of the community determine the type of instructional program the school may offer. Educational leaders, working with community leaders, must provide vision; must expand the vision and develop new attitudes.	64	8	72	2	0	2	21	3	24

	Yes			No			In Part		
	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.
52. In discussing school problems with laymen, it should be conducted in language intelligible to the laymen.	80	11	91	2	0	2	3	0	3
53. Public understanding of modern schools cannot be developed in the abstract alone; it must have something concrete and specific for reference. Every school system and nearly every teacher is performing some function in a superior manner. These can and must be used as evidence of the good that schools can do.	75	11	86	1	0	1	9	0	9
54. A major function of the leaders of any school system is to maintain a continuous program promoting public understanding. This is broader and more basic than a "public relations plan."	64	9	73	4	0	4	14	2	16
55. The pupils and the community are the source of the needs, concerns and interests. The community should serve as the source of materials and the laboratory to be utilized in meeting and solving these problems and needs.		7			0			4	
56. The principal and teachers must establish clearly in their own minds the point of view or philosophy that is to govern the development of the school's total program.		10			0			1	
57. Community life is the sum total of many agencies, individuals, and institutions, of which the home and the school continue to be the most important for education.		11			0			0	
58. The educational direction of the whole child is definitely a professional responsibility in which the public school looms large in leadership and direction. This may be shared with a cooperative group which includes all agencies engaged in child welfare and development.		8			0			3	
59. Use of community resources, in the popular concept, means going out of the school into the field for the study of some situation in its natural setting.		4			3			4	
60. The school journey, the field trip, the school excursion, are terms used synonymously for the use of resources in the instructional program.		7			2			1	
61. The most effective medium of interpreting the schools' needs is through the commanding voice of an organization speaking for the whole organized community.		3			3			5	

	Yes			No			In Part		
	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.
62. As education is now conceded to be more inclusive than the school's formal curriculum alone, it may be said that the success of the school's program will be directly related to the degree with which it is geared to fill gaps in the community's overall youth program.		4			2			4	
63. The universal appeal of serving youth, together with the variety of interesting and useful jobs to be done within the organization, attracts volunteers from every well-organized community in consistently large numbers.		1			1			10	
64. Schools depend upon the community for the financial support which makes them possible, but there are many other ways in which the community can and should support the schools.		10			0			1	
65. In using non-school agencies, specialists, and printed matter, caution should be exercised in guarding against special interest agencies extending their interests into the school to the detriment of meeting the needs of the pupils or to detract from their goals.		8			0			3	
66. In the school where the core curriculum plan is in operation there is sufficient flexibility to allow for larger field trips than is generally possible in the more formally organised schools.		9			0			0	
67. Whatever the type of school, it is possible to have well-planned after school, Saturday or other holiday field trips.		6			2			1	
68. A program designed to utilize the community resources must be reciprocal in nature. It must insure the use of school facilities by the community and also insure the use of community resources by the school.		9			0			0	
III. OPERATING PRACTICES: Principles, Methods and Techniques. These are the ways and means of operation in getting at the resources and making them a vital part of the teaching-learning process.									
1. Schools should utilize all appropriate techniques for effectively relating the school with the community: First-hand experience with reality (resource-visitors, field trips)	83	9	92	0	0	0	4	2	6

	Yes			No			In Part		
	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.
2. Representations of reality (audio-visual aids)	83	9	92	0	0	0	5	2	7
3. Symbols of reality (documentary materials)	73	10	83	0	0	0	14	1	15
4. Good use of community resources does not have to be a project directed by administration; it is possible for a teacher, without secretarial help, without adequate office space or records, without the prestige of a formal title, to spark a program that will tap many resources and serve many students.	56	8	64	2	0	2	27	3	30
5. Through cooperation, the school attempts to improve the program of established services and agencies, making it clear that it has no intent to take over; it acts to lend aid and inspiration.	50	10	60	6	0	6	25	1	26
6. The school shares with other agencies responsibility for providing opportunities for appropriate learning experiences for all members of the community.	66	10	76	3	0	3	16	1	17
7. In many instances, community resources are excellent teaching materials which may be used as they are, or the school may make instructional materials about the resources available, or it may do both.	71	7	78	1	0	1	16	4	20
8. Teachers should guide pupils into situations where they discover inter-relationships between subject matter fields as they relate to the use of community resources.	68	10	78	1	1	2	18	0	18
9. Administration and supervision must exert special efforts to arouse teachers to an awareness of the need for and value of resource use.	66	11	77	9	0	9	12	0	12
10. There should be thorough agreement as to desirable aims of community life, of the place and function of the home, the school, and each agency of the community.	63	10	73	8	0	8	16	1	17
11. The educational adaptability of a community can be greatly enhanced by the promotion of a closer working relationship between the public and the educational system.	79	8	87	1	0	1	5	3	8
12. A school interprets community resources by discovering them, developing them, and using them. Through the school's program, the people of the community learn to know their resources.	54	8	62	3	0	3	27	3	30
13. Even liabilities can be used as teaching materials and turned into assets.	52	8	60	7	0	7	25	3	28

	Yes			No			In Part		
	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.
14. Cooperative planning must be evolutionary, whether with teachers or lay people, and it must start with the existing level of know-how in group planning and group purposing and work slowly.	64	9	73	4	0	4	16	2	18
15. A school must have knowledge of the best financial and budgetary practices to assure that it will derive the maximum benefit from its financial expenditures.	64	8	72	6	1	7	17	2	19
16. If the full creative power of human resources is to be released, in any group situation, a congenial, emotional climate, a permissive atmosphere must exist so that the neophyte in the group will be as free to make his contribution as will the expert or status leader in the group.	68	9	77	4	0	4	14	2	16
17. The schools need to use the latest, best technology of communication to present a graphic picture of all school activities and to illustrate vividly and dramatically the need for the best utilization of available resources.	66	4	70	9	0	9	11	7	18
18. A large measure of inventiveness must be employed in adopting known techniques or developing new ones to meet the needs of the local situation.	70	8	78	5	0	5	10	3	13
19. Communication must be established between administration and the staff, between the staff and administration; from teacher to teacher; between teacher and pupil, and from pupil to teacher; from the school to the community, and from the community to the school.	73	7	80	3	0	3	10	4	14
20. In a good resource use program for school improvement, there must be balanced progress in the entire community; i.e., there should not be outstanding progress by one segment, such as the school, the church, a civic club, the U. S. Employment Office, at the expense of the other agencies and creating extreme unbalance in the community.	63	8	71	10	0	10	12	2	14
21. There are three major levels of culture to be studied in every community: Material culture (geographic factors plus the things people have made or used)	75	10	85	1	0	1	9	1	10
22. Institutional culture (the mass habits or customs of the people)	71	10	81	5	0	5	9	1	10

	Yes			No			In Part		
	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.
23. The psychological culture (the motivating beliefs of the people)	75	7	82	2	0	2	11	3	14
24. In studying the community and using its resources, the community must be perceived in wholeness as well as in its elements. A guiding principle would be to concentrate upon setting, processes, and structure, rather than upon problems, until at least the senior high school level.	50	6	56	15	1	16	19	2	21
25. In using community resources it is most advisable to plan a sequential development of student experiences throughout each year of the entire school program. This comprehensive planning enables each community experience to be functionally related with both prior and subsequent experiences.	68	7	75	11	0	11	5	2	7
26. This sequence should begin with consideration of material culture in the local community in particular reference to its geographic and demographic aspects. Such beginning takes a proper account of the young child's dominant interests as well as of his natural difficulty in thinking abstractly about the institutional and psychological levels of human culture.	51	8	59	10	0	10	25	2	27
27. From the initial study, grounded in the material culture of the local community, there should be an expansion into three related dimensions: (a) space, in other areas; (b) time, in other communities and areas, historically; (c) scope, in institutional and psychological culture levels, to stimulate the child to think increasingly in terms of symbols.	50	8	58	13	0	13	22	2	24
28. The status of teacher-tenure is an important factor. A good resource-use program for school improvement cannot be maintained if there is a high rate of teacher turnover; a high rate of teacher-retention is necessary to give continuity and coordination to the program.	71	9	80	1	0	1	15	2	17
29. In interpreting the educational program to the lay community, for the purpose of tapping local resources, the symbols used should be those which belong to the laymen, rather than to the educator.	57	9	66	7	0	7	23	0	23

	Yes			No			In Part		
	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.
30. There should be deliberate planning by teachers, administrators, boards of education, and the public towards clear objectives determined by laymen and educators.	72	11	83	6	0	6	8	0	8
31. Educators must reach their public, and must provide them with sufficient understanding of what a modern educational program includes, for the science of education has moved far ahead of the popular concept of education.	61	9	70	10	0	10	11	2	13
32. Resource people should be brought into the classroom only when they can make some contribution which has direct bearing upon the activity, problem, or unit which the pupils are planning or working upon.	60	7	67	7	1	8	16	4	20
33. School problems which require use of community resources cannot be solved adequately by the school tapping each social resource separately. There must be coordinated effort through neighborhood or community councils.	58	6	64	5	1	6	21	3	24
34. In order to facilitate a rich, meaningful, and cooperative educational endeavor in the use of community resources by the school, there must be a clarification of policy and an organizational structure providing favorable conditions for taking the students into the community, and for bringing the community into the school.	63	8	71	5	0	5	15	3	18
35. The maximum use of community resources will necessitate changes in some of the techniques and practices of administrators and supervisors.	67	7	74	6	2	8	12	2	14
36. The study of the area of community resources should be integrated with existing organized subject matter fields rather than set up as a new subject matter field.	69	8	77	5	2	7	11	2	13
37. The school should consider controversial issues, and should utilize literature and speakers provided by labor, management, and political parties.	36	2	38	24	1	25	23	8	31
38. Secondary school pupils should be permitted to discuss in class the strengths and weaknesses of community leaders as they appear in assembly programs or in classes.	42	7	49	19	1	20	24	2	26
39. When the school goes into the community and brings the community into the school, the three "R's" become tools for solving life problems and therefore become more meaningful.	59	11	70	7	0	7	18	1	19

	Yes			No			In Part		
	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.
40. The school's responsibility must include assisting other institutions to provide the highest educational quality in all the social situations the child experiences.	70	8	78	8	0	8	8	2	10
41. In a very real sense, teachers and administrators must become skilled observers and guides of human behavior.	75	10	85	3	0	3	7	1	8
42. The school should be sufficiently flexible continually to readjust its program in the light of the changing services of other community agencies.	76	8	84	5	0	5	4	3	7
43. In any effort to vitalize education through relating the school program more closely to community life, the principal must assume a major share of the responsibility.	49	7	56	20	0	20	16	4	20
44. In studying the community only so much should be attempted as the members of the school staff can do with interest and reasonable effort.	68	9	77	7	1	8	12	0	12
45. The "spark," the initiation of the project, must come from the school personnel; the enthusiasm of the teachers is the starting point.	47	6	53	15	1	16	24	3	27
46. Teachers themselves are a key resource. An intelligent use of all their abilities, skills and knowledges will improve the program. Master teachers may be used to break in new teachers. Master teachers may be visited by others to observe and study good methods; teachers with special skills and abilities may be utilized in other classes or for pupil groups.	59	9	68	3	0	3	22	2	24
47. In this community-emphasis program, recognition and honors must be shared; publicity must be provided for outstanding achievements by individuals and groups.	61	9	70	7	0	7	16	2	18
48. It is reasonable and proper for teachers to solicit finances (outside of regular tax sources) from community leaders and agencies for such purposes as providing band and choral equipment, school ground beautification, providing athletic equipment, providing stage equipment, providing food for the lunchroom; for building classrooms, for building a gym, for building a vocational shop, for building a band room, for building a swimming pool, for purchasing school land.	29	3	32	23	6	29	29	2	31

	Yes			No			In Part		
	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.
49. Time should be provided within the daily schedule for teachers to take pupils into the local community for study purposes.	65	11	76	8	0	8	13	0	13
50. Opportunity should be provided for teachers to visit other schools to study master teachers and learn of new methods and techniques, without loss of pay.	68	11	79	8	0	8	9	0	9
51. Professional leadership must be provided by the school.	61	10	71	4	0	4	19	1	20
52. Administrators must provide more and more assistance to those teachers who shall be responsible for exploring and coordinating and utilizing resources.	63	11	74	6	0	6	17	0	17
53. Active lay participation in developing school policies is one of the most effective ways to bring the whole community to the realization that it has a stake in the whole educational enterprise.	61	9	70	8	0	8	16	2	18
54. Two primary functions of leadership are to arrive at group decision and to provide the mechanics for the execution of that decision, or the plan resulting from it.	62	8	70	5	0	5	17	3	20
55. When the school and community arrive at a decision, that decision must be based upon the available scientific facts.	58	7	65	6	0	6	19	4	23
56. One of the steps in eliciting resources and services of the community is for the school to interpret the local educational program to the lay community.	67	9	76	5	0	5	13	2	15
57. There must be coordination of efforts of staff members for the purpose of giving unity and direction to the resource-use projects, and for consideration of the problems involved.	69	10	79	4	0	4	11	1	12
58. It is imperative to get the community and all staff members to realize that the enterprising teacher is not putting on a show, or wasting pupils' time when she takes a group into the community for study.	71	10	81	3	0	3	11	1	12
59. There must be organization to insure the use of the talents of special teachers who are engaged in the use of community resources by virtue of the nature of their teaching tasks.	67	10	77	5	0	5	13	1	14
60. Teachers should know how to use their contacts with and membership in community clubs to generate the involvement of their resources where applicable to school improvement.	71	10	81	6	0	6	10	1	11

	Yes			No			In Part		
	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.
61. When pupils are taken into the community for study purposes, proper adjustments should be made with the principal's office, and with other teachers involved.	80	10	90	1	0	1	3	1	4
62. Staff members in strategic positions, or those who have developed strong contacts, should be used to approach community leaders to gain their aid in school projects, and to influence community leaders to make resources available for instructional purposes.	70	11	81	1	0	1	12	0	12
63. All teachers should be briefed on the technique of visiting community agencies and enterprises for instructional purposes with minimum interference with the general routine of the establishment.	60	10	70	9	0	9	15	1	16
64. If there is no central office, no service center for resource utilization, then administration must make certain that each teacher knows the sources of information concerning natural, human, and social resources of the community.	67	10	77	8	0	8	7	1	8
65. Schools should encourage pupils to discover and make extensive use of the services of other agencies.	69	11	80	2	0	2	12	0	12
66. Method for tapping resources: form a joint committee representing teachers and citizens to meet for planning purposes.	54	6	60	3	0	3	28	4	32
67. Discuss the proposed idea to obtain full understanding.	54	6	60	3	0	3	27	4	31
68. Teachers show laymen what human resources can mean to classroom work by:	54	6	60	3	0	3	26	4	30
69. Examples from different grade levels	55	6	61	3	0	3	26	4	30
70. Examples from various subjects	56	6	62	3	0	3	25	4	29
71. Describe successful experiences and perhaps some failures	55	6	61	3	0	3	25	4	29
72. Lay members present ideas and ask questions	68	6	74	3	0	3	16	4	20
73. Task of the committee: to find the right people and list them according to what they can do.	71	7	78	6	0	6	9	3	12
74. Select them on the basis of their being specialists in the community, and knowing its cultural and economic interests, its population group, its civic and recreational interests, its churches, its historical background and its general character. However, whatever specific plan is adopted, it must be one which adapts itself to school needs and community conditions.	63	7	70	6	0	6	15	3	18

	Yes			No			In Part		
	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.
75. When need arises for work in the library, the science laboratory, or field work, the classroom should be abandoned temporarily for these purposes.		5			4			2	
76. Many public schools make much use of community resources. These resources, part of the learning laboratory of the schools, could not be duplicated by the schools if the budget were quadrupled.		9			0			2	
77. There must be planning of teachers' schedules to permit and encourage them to devise ways and means of contacting and using community resources.		8			0			3	
78. Securing the help and cooperation of those who have charge of these facilities and resources including the enlistment of these same persons in some of the instructional phases of the school program.		8			0			1	
79. We need these community facilities and resources if we would make all our youth occupationally competent--and occupational competence has always been a necessiry for survival.		8			0			1	
80. Use of the field trip is not confined to the local community where the school is located. It may involve travel some distance from home and may vary in time from a few hours to several days or weeks.		10			0			1	
81. The field trip may be short and simple, or long, involved, complex.		11			0			0	
82. Specific subjects may be greatly enriched by use of resources within their special field. For example, science classes will find enriched experiences by direct contact with and examination of native flora and fauna; music students may find motivation for self expression through visits to free concerts, radio studios or television studios; a class in home planning or family living might make excellent use of a visit to a new home under construction in the neighborhood.		9			0			0	
83. Field trips have much to recommend them but they also have their difficulties. Some of these difficulties are: time consuming; transportation; they have to be scheduled far in advance; parental consent must be obtained; teacher must assume additional responsibility for the health and safety of the children. Consequently many teachers do not take field trips because of the difficulties.		4			1			6	

	Yes			No			In Part		
	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.
84. Children need not be deprived of all the advantages of field trips simply because it is not possible for them to leave the classroom. It is often possible for the field trip to come to the classroom, and this reversal of customary procedure, this reverse field trip, is quite effective.		8			0			3	
85. While the simplest and most effective method of the reverse field trip might seem to consist of bringing a resource person into the classroom, there are other ways. A tape recording can bring a message from an important "visitor"; unusual exhibits, models, collections, are examples of reverse field trips.		9			0			2	
86. A children's museum, as a unit of a board of education, or cooperating with the board of education, may be the key instrument in bringing the reverse field trip into the classroom. When this is not available locally, catalogs of free instructional materials may be consulted, and models, kits, and other special materials may be secured.		8			2			1	
87. The teacher and administrator must initiate a program for locating people who can make a contribution and must demonstrate a need for the types of help such people can render.		9			0			2	
88. Every school must have a resource file; some staff member must assume responsibility to organize and keep current such a file, and it must be in a central location.		8			0			3	
89. A good way to locate resource persons is to look at the school records, looking under the heading of occupation of father, occupation of mother (policeman, fireman, milkman, carpenter, television serviceman, plumber, businessman, nurse, doctor).		8			0			3	
90. A good way to demonstrate the need that pupils have for resource persons is to conduct a pupil survey. Find out how many have never seen a judge, a sculptor, the mayor, a famous singer, or painter, an explorer, et cetera.		8			0			3	
91. Television may be an excellent device for a reverse field trip. For some very important national or international events, the school might borrow television sets.		8			2			1	
92. As commercial sponsors and television professionals show little interest in producing educational shows, the schools, whenever possible, should make arrangements to produce TV shows.		5			2			1	

	Yes			No			In Part		
	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.
93. A good practice in locating resource persons is to let the pupils develop a parent resource file from a questionnaire sent to all parents. Type the results on individual cards and place on file in the library or other central location.		6			2			3	
94. The most helpful types of community talent are those explaining trades, the professions, those explaining working conditions, and those offering first-hand knowledge of foreign lands, people and customs.		8			1			2	
95. When resource people work with small discussion groups it gives pupils the feeling of having known the speaker intimately and the way of life he represents.		9			0			0	
96. In visitations in the community, there are at least three types of visits: (a) Advisory visits, to interview, in wholesale, retail, manufacturing plants, in offices both professional and business, agriculture, etc. (b) Vocational visits—to observe techniques and job skills. (c) Cultural visits—to obtain first-hand political, historical, social and cultural information.		10			0			1	
IV. TEACHING TECHNIQUES: Techniques for the utilization of resources in the teaching-learning process.									
1. Aid pupils to gain understanding of their responsibility for improvement of local community and society.	85	9	94	0	0	0	2	2	4
2. Aid pupils in correcting misconceptions concerning agencies and individuals in the community.	79	9	88	2	0	2	3	5	8
3. Stress the value of cooperation in community planning.	78	11	89	2	0	2	7	0	7
4. Guide pupils into situations where they discover inter-relationships between subject matter fields as they relate to the use of community resources.	74	10	84	1	0	1	11	1	12
5. Use pictorial and graphic illustrations of aspects of the community for more effective learning.	74	10	84	2	0	2	11	1	12
6. Vary assignments in classroom and on field trips according to the abilities and interests of the learners.	79	10	89	0	0	0	7	1	8

	Yes			No			In Part		
	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.
7. Teacher encourages pupils to state their views concerning existing situations and conditions in the community as a means for determining the extent of comprehension of the problems involved.	62	11	73	0	0	0	18	0	18
8. Teacher utilizes the knowledges and skills of other teachers within the staff to facilitate instruction in special areas.	70	10	80	0	0	0	15	1	16
9. One of the criteria for selecting problem areas for study should be that the problem should provide opportunities to learn the community, its potentialities, limitations, problems.		11			0			0	
10. Reading may be for information, to verify facts, or other purposes.		11			0			0	
11. Discussion enables the group to clarify goals and concepts; it also provides opportunity for arriving at a unified purpose, or developing understandings and insights and a way of working involving participation in democratic group processes.		11			0			0	
12. Films, slides, film strips, are useful in clarifying concepts involving practices or terminology.		11			0			0	
13. Joint examination of the experience by teacher and pupils.		11			0			1	
14. Listing of important things done by the class will reveal pupils' concepts as to relative importance, disclosing attitudes, opinions and understandings.		10			0			0	
15. A special listing of important principles learned or used will help appraise the extent to which they were learned.		11			0			1	
16. Such listing by students is evidence of evaluation of facts learned, or attitudes changed effecting desirable behavior and re-orientation of goals.		10			0			0	
V. ORGANIZATION PRINCIPLES AND PROCEDURES: Resource education, centered in the community, functions best within an organizational framework that is conscious of the need for "real experience," that provides flexibility, that encourages teachers to develop this program, that sets up guidelines, and that makes provision for coordination and cooperation with other educative agencies in the community.									

	Yes			No			In Part		
	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.
If community resources are to be used in a logical, organized, balanced and continuing program, then a "community service center" must become an integral part of the school system. This means some central office to act as a "control tower" and as a repository of information systematically categorized, classified, and kept current on the natural, human and social resources.									
Even if your school does not have a community service center it may have some type of organization for this general purpose. Please check the items that apply and/or operate in your school.									
What a community service center should do: an adequate community service center will concurrently offer three major services: (a) a clearing house, (b) a resource library, and (c) an instructional agency.									
1. Prevent the resource-use program from becoming limited in effectiveness by preventing teachers from overworking some resource centers and persons, while neglecting others.	53	8	61	11	1	12	18	2	20
2. Will coordinate and control difficult school-community relationships to prevent the discrediting of the entire community-resource program.	64	7	71	7	1	8	11	3	14
3. It will act as an agency with responsibility to the school and community.	68	10	78	3	1	4	9	1	10
4. It will clear, and possibly arrange, all instructional projects involving school-community relationships.	57	6	63	9	0	9	16	4	20
5. It will catalog available community resources, and include location and contact directions, rating of the resource, time required, expenses, traveling directions, limiting conditions, general comments, cross references, and record of previous users.	63	4	67	9	0	9	11	6	17
6. It will discover additional community resources.	61	7	68	6	0	6	15	3	18
7. Coordinate the entire school-community program.	54	3	57	12	1	13	16	6	22
8. Maintain good public relations.	72	7	79	2	0	2	9	3	12

	Yes			No			In Part		
	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.
9. Promote the school-community program by: Distributing lists of possible projects.	62	8	70	7	0	7	12	2	14
10. Providing requested information such as the curriculum areas and grade levels, the specific educational value of the item or experience, its critical rating.	55	5	60	8	0	8	19	5	24
11. Assist with community projects: help inexperienced teachers and provide expert advice in their own educational efforts and programs.	65	7	72	10	0	10	7	3	10
12. Serve as a resource library of audio-visual aids and printed materials.	58	6	64	9	0	9	15	3	18
13. The coordinating (community) council is the agency through which school personnel and community citizens may maintain active, critical, and continuing cooperation in the planning of the basic school policy.	0	3	3	60	0	60	22	7	29
14. In its broadest sense, a coordinating council is a cooperative organization of groups and individuals who work together to improve social welfare within a given local community. It is primarily an advisory and catalytic influence, rather than a super-administrative agency.	16	5	21	31	1	32	32	4	36
15. In all programs which involve use of community resources for educational purposes, the fundamental key to success is community coordination, for no single agency can provide all the personnel, all the technical knowledge, all the resources, and it is only when homes, churches, welfare services, law enforcement divisions, courts, clinics, youth agencies, service clubs, professional groups, business associations, labor unions, veterans' organizations and schools plan and work together that youth will be adequately served with all his problems and all his needs.	32	6	38	7	0	7	32	4	36
16. School people who participate with the coordinating council have special obligations: to provide leadership, and to act with others in making and keeping the council a potent educational force in the community.	59	8	67	9	0	9	14	2	16
17. To maintain the democratic values of group discussion, group planning, group decision, and encourage objective thinking about controversial issues.	59	8	67	3	0	3	20	2	22
18. To guide the council in using evaluating procedures.	61	6	67	9	2	11	12	2	14

	Yes			No			In Part		
	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.
19. To help sensitize the council members to the needs, interests and problems of youth.	58	7	65	8	1	9	16	2	18
20. To work for widening the base of the council membership to include young people in the deliberating and planning and executing of policies.	55	7	62	9	1	10	16	2	18
21. If the school is to maintain flexibility, is to respond to the dynamics of its society, it must adjust its program to meet local needs, must discard the obsolete, and must provide the new.	53	7	60	9	0	9	20	3	23
22. A community study is an excellent medium for using local resources. Perhaps the best approach to it is when (a) the school starts with a problem about which it has definite questions, (b) when the students really want to make the study, (c) the plan is simple, (d) the study is cooperative between school and community, (e) leadership is discovered and developed, and (f) results are used.	53	8	61	8	0	8	19	3	22
23. If a school is to make the best use of resources and integrate them into the curriculum and into the lives of the students, it must have a highly trained staff; for human engineering is involved.	40	6	46	14	0	14	26	5	31
24. The school must assume a leadership relationship to adults.	46	6	52	10	2	12	24	3	27
25. It must work with specialists from many different types of public agencies.	42	6	48	10	0	10	30	3	33
26. It interprets scientific principles from life situations rather than textbooks.	41	6	47	10	0	10	31	3	34
27. Some energetic people from the community must come in at the outset to advise, search for talent, and widen the circle of understanding.	54	3	57	11	2	13	15	6	21
28. As a general rule, lay participants on planning committees will have deep interest in good education, and probably will be persons who have something at stake in the community.	70	8	78	2	0	2	11	0	11
29. In cultivating community resources, personal contact is essential.	70	10	80	1	0	1	7	2	9
30. All the personnel phases of resource-use plans, and especially in the use of persons, must be carried out in a highly intelligent manner.	69	10	79	4	0	4	5	1	6

	Yes			No			In Part		
	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.
31. Contacts made with community leaders, or community agencies, whose services are sought in the instructional program, should be made by or with the approval of the school's administrative officer.	65	10	75	5	0	5	9	1	10
32. There should be considerable participation of teachers and pupils in the selection of agencies and leaders whose services are to be utilized.	63	11	74	6	0	6	10	0	10
33. The school should possess specific information concerning the function and services of special and related educational agencies, whose programs are sponsored through government sources primarily to help improve the general living conditions of the people.	61	9	70	4	0	4	12	3	15
34. These agencies should be used extensively by schools when their social-material resources can contribute to the realization of the aim of education.	62	8	70	5	0	5	14	1	15
35. Student tours, visits, all manifestations of resource-use, must be carefully organized from the standpoint of economy of time.	72	10	82	5	0	5	1	1	2
36. A good means to stimulate interest in resources is to organize and present exhibits and models of community resources.	70	8	78	4	0	4	5	3	8
General Question									
37. In view of the definite trend for the federal government to collect an increasing share of tax money, and of other governmental agencies receiving an increasing proportion of public appropriations, the schools lack adequate finances, and hence, must utilize every available resource in order to provide an adequate, comprehensive curriculum that will meet the needs of all its students.	63	7	70	3	1	4	8	3	11
38. In planning a program built upon cooperative endeavor, the place of the home and parent, community institutions, community leadership, and all other interested individuals and groups should be definitely determined under school leadership through some form of community council or other cooperative means.		6			0			4	
39. Some member of the school staff should understand the basic research techniques for studying the school community.		10			0			0	

	Yes			No			In Part		
	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.
40. Field trips are arranged on a grade level, such as kindergarten, elementary or secondary.		8			1			2	
41. The most simple field trip is one that has for its main purpose the identification of the object observed (a visit to a fire station where definite objects are identified).		11			0			0	
42. The next stage above identification would be for the purpose of comprehending some of the functions of the agency or institution visited. (For example, children in the upper elementary grades will be able to deal with the functions of the fire department in the community and its relation to the protection of the community as a whole.)		11			0			0	
43. The next stage, or level of interest, is extensive in purpose, being complex and varied and going beyond functions. (For example, high school pupils would explore other facets of interest such as the cost of equipment and operation, the effect of fires on taxation, the possible choice of fire-fighting as a vocation, the chemistry of fire-fighting, etc.)		8			0			2	
44. An excellent technique for resource utilization is to set up a central directory of local youth services to facilitate the referral of health, welfare, and behavior problem cases between agencies.		8			2			1	
45. When representative community councils are organized to work on problems of joint school and community responsibility, they should be dedicated to the coordination, planning, and development of youth programs.		6			1			5	
46. The community council will develop possible areas of action only as the need arises, or is discovered locally.		3			0			4	
47. Motivating factors which initiate the establishment of a community council frequently dictate what facets of the program will be given first consideration.		4			2			6	
48. A faculty committee, composed of every member of the faculty who wishes to bring about a close relation between his particular course or subject area and the community, is a better plan for achieving community cooperation than that of having a single staff member arrange all the coordination.		7			5			0	

	Yes			No			In Part		
	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.	R.	S.	T.
49. A true community council is infinitely more effective in gaining public attention and support than an occasional news release by the school or a Parent Teacher Association resolution.		9			0			2	
50. A characteristic of small-town life is the complete lack of effective coordination of programs or projects among the several groups which characterize the social activity of the community.		3			0			8	
51. An excellent technique to help coordinate community programs is the establishment of a centrally located "community calendar," with a convenient index of future activity, and pointing up gaps in the total program as it relates to youth.		7			0			4	

APPENDIX C

Chart Showing Sources of Generalizations Used in the Survey Form

CHART I.

This chart makes it possible to identify the source or sources from which all items in the survey form were derived. In the left hand column is shown the category. In the next column is shown the number of the item as it appears in the survey form. In the third, or right hand column is shown the number of the source as it appears in the bibliography. Page numbers are included where applicable. Each item in the bibliography has been numbered for this purpose. The survey form is included in this study as Appendix B.

Evaluation

Category	Principle	Source
I	1	58:318
I	2	58:318
I	3	58:318
I	4	58:318
I	5	58:319-322
I	6	58:319-322 and 95: 1-4
I	7	58:319-322
I	8	58:319-322
I	9	58:319-322
I	10	58:319-322
I	11	58:319-322
I	12	58:319-322
I	13	58:319-322
I	14	58:319-322
I	15	58:325-333 and 26:41-45
I	16	58:325-333 and 26:41-45
I	17	58:325-333 and 26:41-45
I	18	58:325-333 and 26:41-45
I	19	58:325-333 and 26:41-45
I	20	58:325-333 and 26:41-45
I	21	58:325-333 and 26:41-45
I	22	58:325-333 and 26:41-45

Basic Principles

Category	Principle	Source
II	1	117:4
II	2	159:10-14
II	3	148-152
II	4	37:13-17
II	5	58:12
II	6	109:153-157
II	7	117:4
II	8	118:14-15
II	9	119:14-15
II	10	81:4
II	11	94:44-45
II	12	107:587-598
II	13	24:25-28
II	14	106:65-68
II	15	81:2-11-51
II	16	76:55-70
II	17	130:4
II	18	62:23
II	19	62:33
II	20	24:25-28
II	21	87:40-45
II	22	140:128
II	23	62:4
II	24	58:409-412
II	25	58:409-412
II	26	58:409-412
II	27	70:92-39
II	28	107:587-598
II	29	144:30
II	30	144:30
II	31	119:14-15
II	32	100:139-143 and 18-22
II	33	58:12
II	34	140:33
II	35	140:234-237
II	36	131
II	37	140:237-238
II	38	63:109
II	39	32:592
II	40	140:234-36
II	41	89:58-59
II	42	136:1-33

Basic Principles (Continued)

Category	Principle	Source
II	43	81:24
II	44	37:47-50
II	45	24:50-52
II	46	119:33
II	47	107:587-598
II	48	81:2
II	49	134:1-18
II	50	50:188-204
II	51	104:19-22
II	52	118:64-52
II	53	104:19-22
II	54	42:247-250 and 24:43
II	55	81:53-55
II	56	10:9-10
II	57	158:3-23
II	58	22:50-7- and 33:73-75
II	59	3:52-56
II	60	25:25
II	61	58:148
II	62	106:65-68
II	63	106:65-68
II	64	106:65-68
II	65	88
II	66	140:48-52
II	67	32:473-474-695-741
II	68	25:29-35
II	69	47:7-9

Operating Practices

Category	Principle	Source
III	1	58:412
III	2	58:412
III	3	58:412
III	4	32:590
III	5	9:18-23
III	6	74:19-26
III	7	119:11-12
III	8	1:128-135
III	9	134:1-18 and 40:646-649
III	10	22:7-10
III	11	55:1-40
III	12	119:11-12
III	13	119:11-12
III	14	53:25-87
III	15	7:415-421
III	16	139
III	17	24:32-37
III	18	24:32-37
III	19	134:1-18
III	20	147
III	21	58:45-46
III	22	58:45-46
III	23	58:45-46
III	24	58:411-412
III	25	58:411-412
III	26	58:411-412
III	27	58:411-412
III	28	144
III	29	24:54
III	30	81:2-4 and 55
III	31	29:67
III	32	37:52-54 and 88:
III	33	37:48-49
III	34	39:7-16
III	35	140:238-248
III	36	140:238-248
III	37	140:238-248
III	38	140:238-248
III	39	119:14-15
III	40	33:12-145
III	41	87:40-45
III	42	100:140-143

Operating Practices (Continued)

Category	Principle	Source
III	43	81:55
III	44	53:25-27
III	45	18:1-48
III	46	50:188-204 and 154:
III	47	144
III	48	140:74
III	49	70:329-341
III	50	149:74-80
III	51	2:Preface
III	52	85:21-130
III	53	62:259
III	54	2:115-117
III	55	154
III	56	3:52-53
III	57	80: Ch. II
III	58	58:290
III	59	80:Ch. II
III	60	86:187-203
III	61	1:100-105
III	62	152
III	63	74:23-32
III	64	58:346-366
III	65	124:1-32 and 90:231
III	66	23:1-44
III	67	23:1-44
III	68	23:1-44
III	69	23:1-44
III	70	23:1-44
III	71	23:1-44
III	72	23:1-44
III	73	23:1-44
III	74	23:1-44
III	75	100:139-141
III	76	33:72-79
III	77	80:Ch. II
III	78	80:Ch. II
III	79	29:57
III	80	46:73-74
III	81	1:73-74
III	82	26:33-40
III	83	88:1-8
III	84	88:1-8

Operating Practices (Continued)

Category	Principle	Source
III	85	88:1-6
III	86	88:1-6
III	87	88:1-6 and 234-237
III	88	140:234-231 and 58:
III	89	88:1-3
III	90	143:1-25
III	91	88:3-4
III	92	112:22
III	93	88:1-3
III	94	140:83-90
III	95	88:1-4
III	96	1:Ch. II

Teaching Techniques

Category	Principle	Source
IV	1	140:234
IV	2	140:92 and 113:189-208
IV	3	26:26-41
IV	4	140:234
IV	5	88:1-4
IV	6	25:25-35
IV	7	58:33 and 300-332
IV	8	154
IV	9	26:30-45 and 27;79
IV	10	26:30-45 and 27:79
IV	11	26:30-45 and 27:79
IV	12	26:30-45 and 27:79
IV	13	27:79
IV	14	138
IV	15	138
IV	16	138
IV	17	

Organizational Principles

Category	Principle	Source
V	1	58:Ch. 18
V	2	58:Ch. 18
V	3	58:Ch. 18
V	4	58:Ch. 18
V	5	58:Ch. 18
V	6	58:Ch. 18
V	7	58:Ch. 18
V	8	58:Ch. 18
V	9	58:Ch. 18
V	10	58:Ch. 18
V	11	58:Ch. 18
V	12	58:Ch. 18
V	13	64:141-168
V	14	157
V	15	37:47:51
V	16	104:19-22
V	17	104:19-22
V	18	118:40
V	19	118:40
V	20	105:26-28
V	21	139
V	22	149:14-15
V	23	149and 6:iii-iv,2-3,31-52
V	24	149and 6:iii-iv,2-3,31-52
V	25	149and 6:iii-iv,2-3,31-52
V	26	149and 6:iii-iv,2-3,31-52
V	27	23:1-10:12-44
V	28	23:1-10:12-44
V	29	23:1-10:12-44
V	30	23:1-10:12-44
V	31	140:234
V	32	140:77
V	33	105-26 and 106:66
V	34	106:66
V	35	58:155
V	36	88:1-4
V	37	43:579
V	38	138
V	39	37:25-26
V	40	58:152-154
V	41	58:152-154
V	42	58:152-154

Organizational Principles (Continued)

Category	Principle	Source
V	43	58:152-154
V	44	106:66-68
V	45	106:66-68
V	46	106:66-68
V	47	106:66-68
V	48	80:Ch. II
V	49	106:65-68
V	50	106:65-68
V	51	106:65-68

BIOGRAPHY

Robert E. DuBey was born in Detroit, Michigan, January 16, 1912. He received his early education in Tampa, Florida, and Detroit, Michigan, graduating from Detroit Northwestern High School in 1929. His undergraduate college work was done at Lincoln Memorial College, Harrogate, Tennessee, and Michigan State College, East Lansing, Michigan. He was awarded the Bachelor of Arts degree in History by Michigan State College in 1933.

He received the degree Master of Arts, from the University of Michigan, in 1938. He did additional graduate work at Michigan and at Wayne University, after World War II.

Mr. DuBey taught in the Roseville Elementary School, and in the Lincoln Park High School, and organized the Lincoln Park Veterans Institute. He was Director of the Adult Education Division, River Rouge, Michigan for five years. He took a leave of absence from this position in January, 1951, to complete work for the doctoral degree at the University of Florida.

Mr. DuBey was active on state and national Veteran's Education Committees, and also on state and national adult education committees. He has a background of five years experience in the automotive and related industries in Detroit.

Mr. DuBey is a professional member of the National Vocational Guidance Association. He is a member of Kappa Delta Pi, honorary educational society, and Phi Delta Kappa, professional educational fraternity.

In 1942 Mr. DuBey married Cleo Elizabeth Holyfield of Wise, Virginia.

This dissertation was prepared under the direction of the chairman of the candidate's supervisory committee and has been approved by all members of the committee. It was submitted to the Dean of the College of Education and to the Graduate Council and was approved as partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education.

January 31, 1953

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